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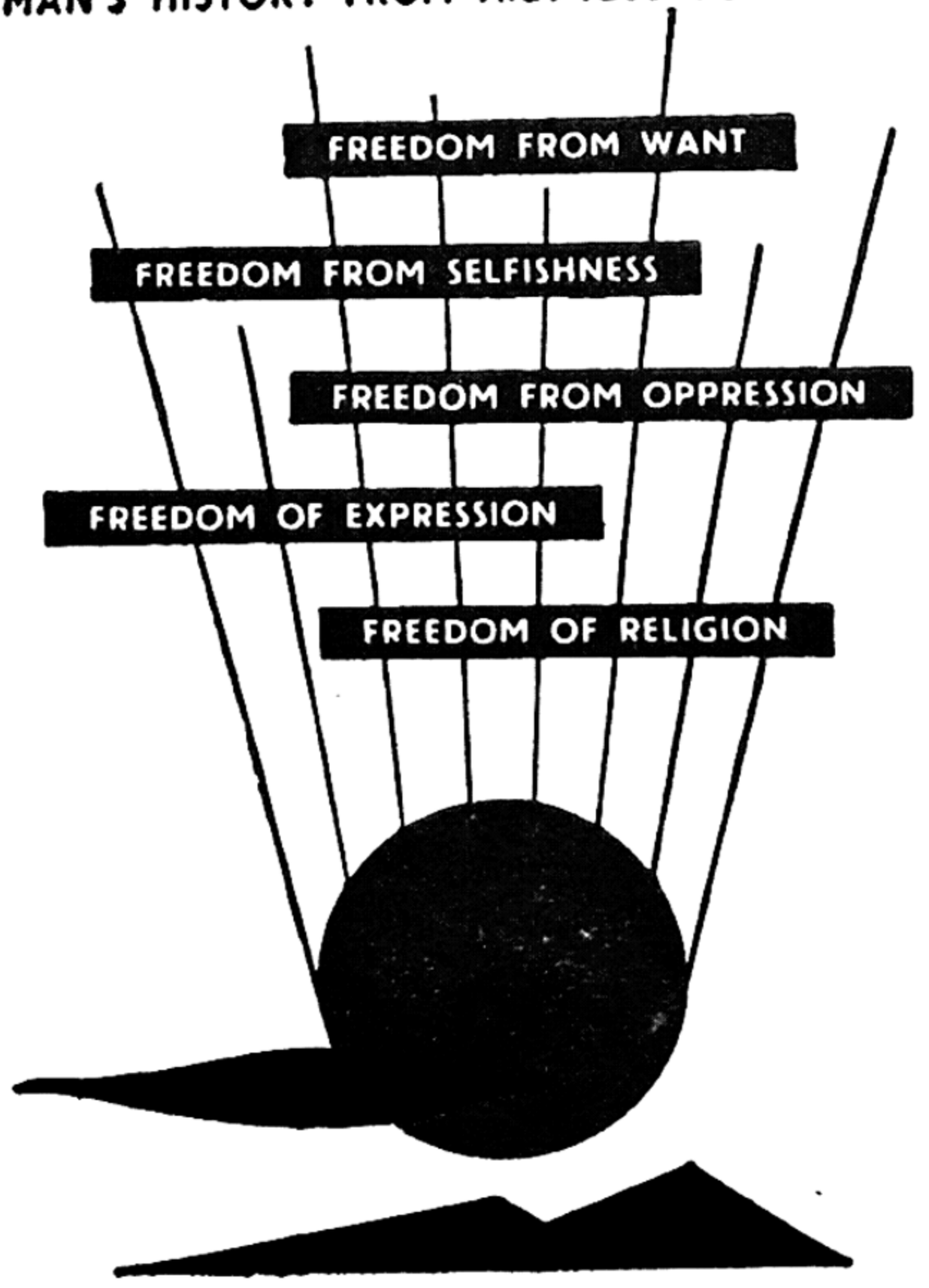
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THE DAWN OF FREEDOM

MAN'S HISTORY FROM A.D. 1200 TO A.D. 1900



F. G. PEARCE

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THE DAWN OF FREEDOM

An Outline of World History from A.D. 1200 to A.D. 1900

By

F. G. PEARCE



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Preface

In *The Struggle of Modern Man*[1] I have tried to provide a background of world history in very simple language, suitable for pre-Matriculation classes, Junior Secondary or Senior Basic schools. This book, *The Dawn of Freedom*, with its sequel *The Struggle of Democracy*,[2] covers rather more ground from a different point of view. The two books are intended for Indian boys and girls studying at approximately the High School or Intermediate stage.

The outstanding events dealt with in *The Struggle of Modern Man* have been revised in the present book. But, whereas in the earlier book more stress was laid on the parts played by outstanding individual men and women in the building up of modern civilization, in this book the picture drawn places emphasis rather upon the environment of ideas and events in which they lived, the tendencies and stresses of human growth, the clashes of conflicting ideals and ideas, and the results which followed from them.

The forty-five lessons in this book are short enough to be covered easily in one school year, even if only one period each week is given to World History. As in all my other books, I have provided 'Key-Questions' as an aid to intelligent study and revision, and Exercises to serve as a stimulus to thought, discussion and further reading.

The language has deliberately been kept simple and straightforward (within a vocabulary of some 2,000 words only) so

[1] Published by the Oxford University Press, Rs. 2-4. All references are to the fifth edition.

[2] In the press, to be published by the Oxford University Press.

that it may form no obstacle to the clear understanding of the subject-matter, even if used in High School classes.

Rishi Valley
September 1951

F. G. P.

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1

Freedom

LESSON 1 : THE MEANING OF FREEDOM

[Key-Question 1 : *To what extent can anyone be free ?*]

§1. Freedom is a sweet-sounding word. Nearly all of us love to use it or to hear it used. Even if we do not quite understand what it means, we feel it stands for something fine and courageous. And so it does. It stands for something precious, too ; something for which men and women in every part of the world have struggled and suffered and gone bravely even to their death. If we enjoy any freedom now, it is partly due to them. So it is really worth our while to know clearly what freedom is, and why it has been valued so highly. We shall ourselves thereby come to value it, and not lose it by carelessness.

At one time it used to be said ' All men are born free '; but we can see now that that is not true at all, for Nature binds us in all sorts of ways. The new-born baby is not free, not even as free as the new-born calf, and much less than the new-born mosquito. The young mosquito is soon able to fly away ; the calf begins to walk in a few days ; but the human baby takes at least a year even to



THE NEW-BORN BABY IS NOT FREE

crawl. He slowly wins his freedom by increase of strength and skill. It does not come to him in any other way.

This is equally true of all kinds of freedom. Is Man free to fly through the air? He was not free to do so until, after making many vain attempts, he gained sufficient knowledge of Nature's laws and created a machine to give him that freedom. You see how three things are needed for this: (1) will or determination. (2) knowledge, and (3) action. You cannot succeed without all three together.

Everything that surrounds us has a tendency to limit our freedom. The body and the mind, which are your tools for living in this world, limit your freedom. How? If you do not feed your body properly, it will get ill and die. You have to *decide* to eat, *choose* what to eat, and *eat*: will, knowledge and action. But surely our thoughts are free? Not at all. Suppose you have been brought up in a country where everyone believes that people of a particular colour, or race, or people of a particular caste or class, or people of a particular religion, are better than all others, your mind also will grow up with those ideas. If you want to change, you will need determination, knowledge, *and* action to make your mind free. (Even then it will not be an easy thing to do, so strong is the power of our surroundings.)

[Key-Question 2: *What are 'the Four Freedoms'?*]

§2. Fortunately, young people naturally want to be free. I am afraid it is usually the older people who are to blame for making them grow up with narrow ideas. So, because young people are always coming into the world to take the place of the old, the human race goes on struggling for freedom.

That struggle has now gone on for a long time and we have made a good deal of progress, although we have still a long way to go. President Roosevelt said that there are four kinds

of freedom. I think there are five, but I shall not tell you about the fifth freedom here. The four freedoms are :

1. Freedom from fear of tyranny and violence.
2. Freedom of religion.
3. Freedom of speech and association.
4. Freedom from want.

They are not numbered in order of importance, for we want to have them all. We sometimes call them by other names, such as political freedom, religious freedom, social freedom, and economic freedom. You will be able to understand more about each of them in detail as we go on. Here I only want to say that we have succeeded to some extent in many parts of the world in getting Freedoms 2 and 3 ; we have been trying to get Freedom 1 for a long time, and we are now perhaps nearer finding out how to get it than we ever were before. Freedom 4 we have only just *begun* to plan to get for everybody. Very few of us have got it yet.

To get all these freedoms we shall need the same things : will, knowledge and action. As you are young, I feel sure you have the WILL. The business of this book and its sequel is to try to give you the KNOWLEDGE, by showing you how people struggled for the different freedoms in the past, and how they are doing so now. It is for you to take the ACTION when you grow up, after you have carefully thought about the facts you have read and heard, and have made up your mind what is the right thing to do.

And remember, if you have will and knowledge, but are afraid to take action, you may lose the freedom that others have gained for you, and your children will blame you for it.

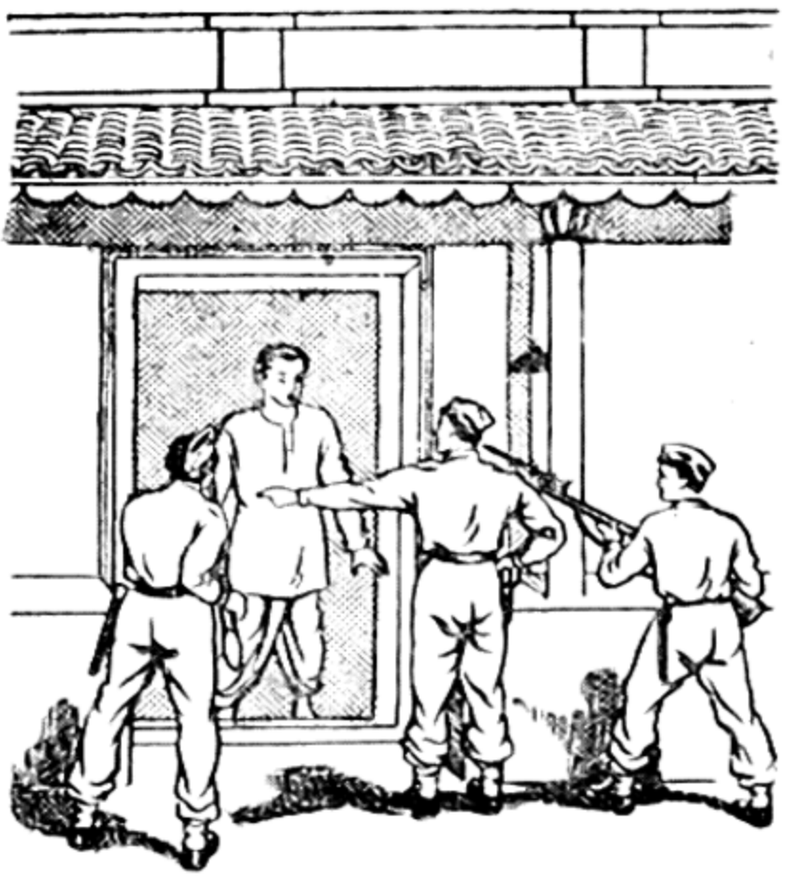
EXERCISES

1. Are all men born free? How is our freedom limited?
2. What are the 'Four Freedoms'? Have we got any of them?
3. What must we do to get freedom?

LESSON 2 : THE LOSS OF FREEDOM

[Key-Question 3 : *What misfortunes come to those who have no freedom ?*]

§3. Suppose that you are a citizen peacefully with your family in your own house, earning your living (let us imagine) by trade, or by following a profession such as that of a doctor, or by farming your own land. Suppose that, one day, a man in uniform accompanied by two soldiers comes to your house, and tells you that by order of the king or the governor, or whoever is ruling the country, you must give the soldiers one room of your house to live in and must feed them at your own cost. Suppose, next week, or next year, the officer comes again and tells you that the ruler has seen you riding on a very good horse which he wants to have for himself and he has ordered you to give it to him. Suppose, a month later, the message is that the ruler is going to get married, so you must send him a certain sum of money as a present. A little while after that, you are told that a piece of your land must be given up because the ruler wants to make his palace garden larger. Next, you are told that you must go and work one day in each week at the palace, without being paid for it. By this time you will



A Man in Uniform Comes to Your Door

probably feel very angry, but there is more to come. The ruler has decided to change his religion. He orders all his subjects to change theirs, too. And, finally, one day a policeman comes to your house, tells you he has come to take you to prison by order of the king, and refuses to tell you why you are being sent there. Locked in a gloomy dungeon, you are allowed to



THERE WOULD BE SUCH AN OUTCRY

see no one, and you are not brought out for trial before a judge. Your friends and family never see you alive again. You die and, in time, are altogether forgotten.

Could this possibly happen? Yes, in a few countries, even today, it is possible for some of these things to happen. In some other countries perhaps one or more of such things might take place. But in most countries, if even a single one of these things happened, there would be such an outcry that

the ruler would not dare to do such a thing again. The person to whom such things happened would tell all his friends; there would be public meetings, and speeches would be made in which the speakers would declare that such acts were against the law and that the rights of citizens must not be taken away by such acts of tyranny.

But if you and I had been living a thousand years ago, or even a few hundred years ago, in most parts of the world these things *could* have happened to us and we should not have been able to do anything about it. We should have been obliged simply to obey the king's orders—or suffer the consequences. You see from this that men have taken a very great step forward in gaining 'rights' as citizens. It is therefore most important that we should all know what is meant by such rights, and how we managed to get the rights we have.

[Key-Question 4: *What are our 'rights' and how are they preserved?*]

§4. From what has been said in the first paragraph of this lesson you will have no difficulty in understanding most of the rights mentioned there. Let us again examine the 'wrongs' which we imagined you had to suffer. We supposed that the king or the ruler of the country gave those orders simply because it was his own will to give them. They were the orders of a tyrant, an autocrat, an absolute ruler. They were not according to any laws made by the consent of the people, the citizens of the country, or by their representatives. The ruler did whatever he wished to do, and the people simply had to obey. They had no right to tell him: 'It is the law that you must not force us to feed your soldiers free of charge: it is the law that you must not take our property just as you please: it is the law that you must not make us work for you without pay: it is the law that you must not interfere with our religion even if it is different from your own: it is the law that you

must not send a man to prison without telling him why: it is the law that if you arrest a man, he must be brought to public trial before a proper judge: it is the law that you must not punish him unless the judge finds he is guilty of the wrong-doing of which he is accused.'

Of course, these are only a few of the rights which men have gained and which are now written down as law. Each country has its own laws—now printed in books—about what men may do and what they may not do, laws about government, laws about property, laws about marriage, and so on. The laws are not exactly the same in every country, but most modern civilized countries now have laws in which it is laid down that every citizen is to have at least the rights we have mentioned above.

Now the question we must ask is: How did men gain these rights? How did they get those laws made, and how did they compel even their kings and rulers to keep the laws, with the result that, today, you and I are not in danger of the ruler of our country doing the things we have imagined in paragraph 1 of §3.

It is the duty of History to answer these questions. We shall try to answer them in the lessons which follow.

EXERCISES

1. Why do the misfortunes mentioned in §3 happen in some countries Why do they not happen in others?
2. What are our 'rights' and how are they preserved? How can we be sure to keep them?
3. Mention any other 'right' that all men ought to enjoy.

LESSON 3: GOVERNMENT

[Key-Question 5: *In ancient times to what extent did the people's welfare depend upon their ruler?*]

§5. In the first paragraph of this book I said that the rights which we now enjoy have been won for us by the efforts of brave people in many countries. We shall now learn something about those efforts and the people who made them.

LESSON 3

In ancient times the good government of a country depended almost entirely on what sort of a man was king. If he was a man who wanted to see his people happy and prosperous, he could do a great deal for them by stopping quarrels and settling disputes justly, by making good roads and having the towns and villages kept clean, by building hospitals and schools and rest-houses, by making wells and tanks and canals, and by allowing religious freedom. If, on the other hand, he was a selfish, cruel and greedy man, he could do a lot of harm by taking his people's goods, by making harsh laws and appointing bad officers and by not having justice done. But, even if he was neither very bad nor very good, the people would usually put up with him willingly, provided he did not interfere with their ordinary ways of earning a livelihood, with their religion, and with their family affairs. It was only when the king was very very bad, cruel, unjust and oppressive, that the people tried to get rid of him, usually by helping another member of his family, or a member of another noble family, to seize the throne. In fact, in ancient times — in China, India and in some western countries such as England before the Norman conquest — there was a law that a king could be forced to give up his throne to a better man, if he proved himself unfit to rule. The new ruler usually was not elected by his subjects, however, but chosen by the council of advisers or ministers.

When the Huns and other barbarian tribes began their invasions, the great empires—the Han empire in China, the Gupta empire in India, the Sassanid empire in Persia, the Roman empire in Europe—were broken to pieces, and there was great disorder everywhere from about A. D. 400 until about A.D. 800. This period is known as the *Dark Ages*. Life became very dangerous and difficult for peaceful people then. Fields could

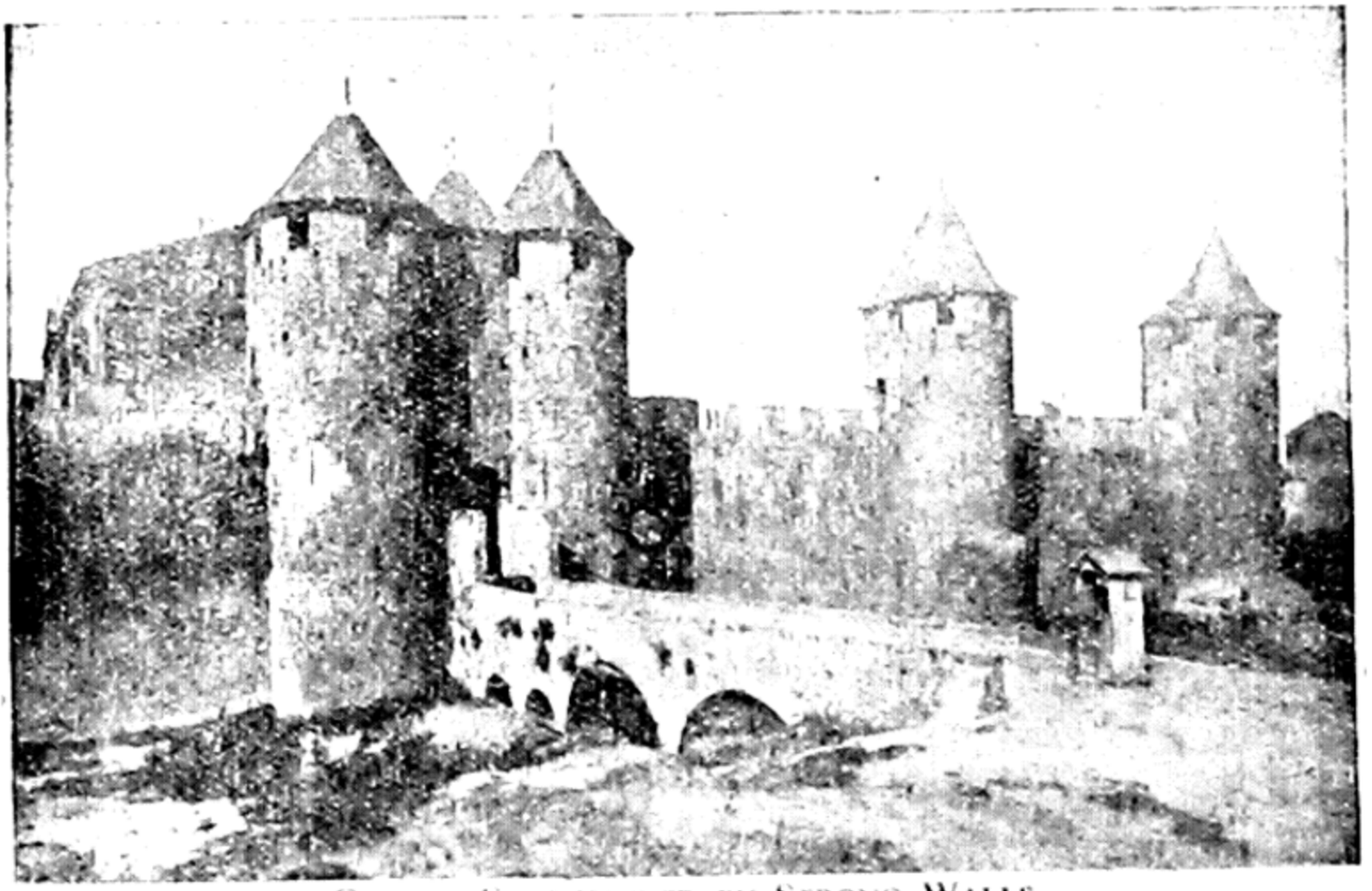
not be cultivated, trade could not be carried on. There was not enough to eat and there were robbers everywhere. Hundreds of thousands of people died of starvation and of the terrible sicknesses, such as plague, which broke out.

[Key-Question 6 : *What was the 'Feudal System' and how did it come into existence ?*]

§6. But in the *Middle Ages* (from about A. D. 800 to about A. D. 1500) a new way of keeping order gradually arose. The only way in which people could live in safety was to surround themselves by strong walls and to keep armed men ready to fight against robbers or other enemies. This was the time when many of the forts and castles were built whose ruins we now see on the tops of rocks or small hills which could easily be defended. To get protection for their families and their fields, the poorer people were willing to promise service (as soldiers in time of war, and for other work in time of peace) to the nobleman who owned the castle. They had to give him a part of whatever they grew in their fields and to serve him as soldiers if war broke out. In return he promised them protection. To protect himself and his lands, the nobleman would in his turn promise the help of his little army of soldiers to a more powerful nobleman who (if he was powerful enough called himself a 'king', though really he was often only the most powerful among a number of other chiefs or nobles. This sort of government is called the *Feudal System.* It came into existence in nearly every country of the world after a period of war and confusion.

You can easily understand that such a system of government was only useful for preventing complete confusion and disorder : it did not do much for the people except to keep them fairly safe from attacks by robbers or other enemies. But it

had another great defect. Each of the great feudal noblemen wanted to make himself king. If he thought that he could



CASTLES SURROUNDED BY STRONG WALLS

make his army large and strong enough to overcome the neighbouring nobleman's army and capture his forts and towns, he would do so.

After several hundred years of this sort of warfare, the more powerful noblemen in most countries became so strong that they were really kings of the whole country. They then forced the weaker noblemen to stop having private armies and allowed only one army to exist—the king's army. To pay for that army (the wages of its soldiers and their equipment) the king forced the nobles and the richer people of the towns to give money to him as taxes. The king, of course, had lands of his own from which he got money and goods just like the other nobles. This was not enough for him, however, if he

was a warlike person and wanted to send his army to fight against another king, or if he was fond of luxury and wanted to build himself fine palaces and to give big presents to his favourites and friends. These questions thus arose : Could the king take whatever money he wanted ? Could he take it for any purpose he pleased ? Could he take it from any of his subjects ? Could he treat his subjects as if they were merely his possessions ?

EXERCISES

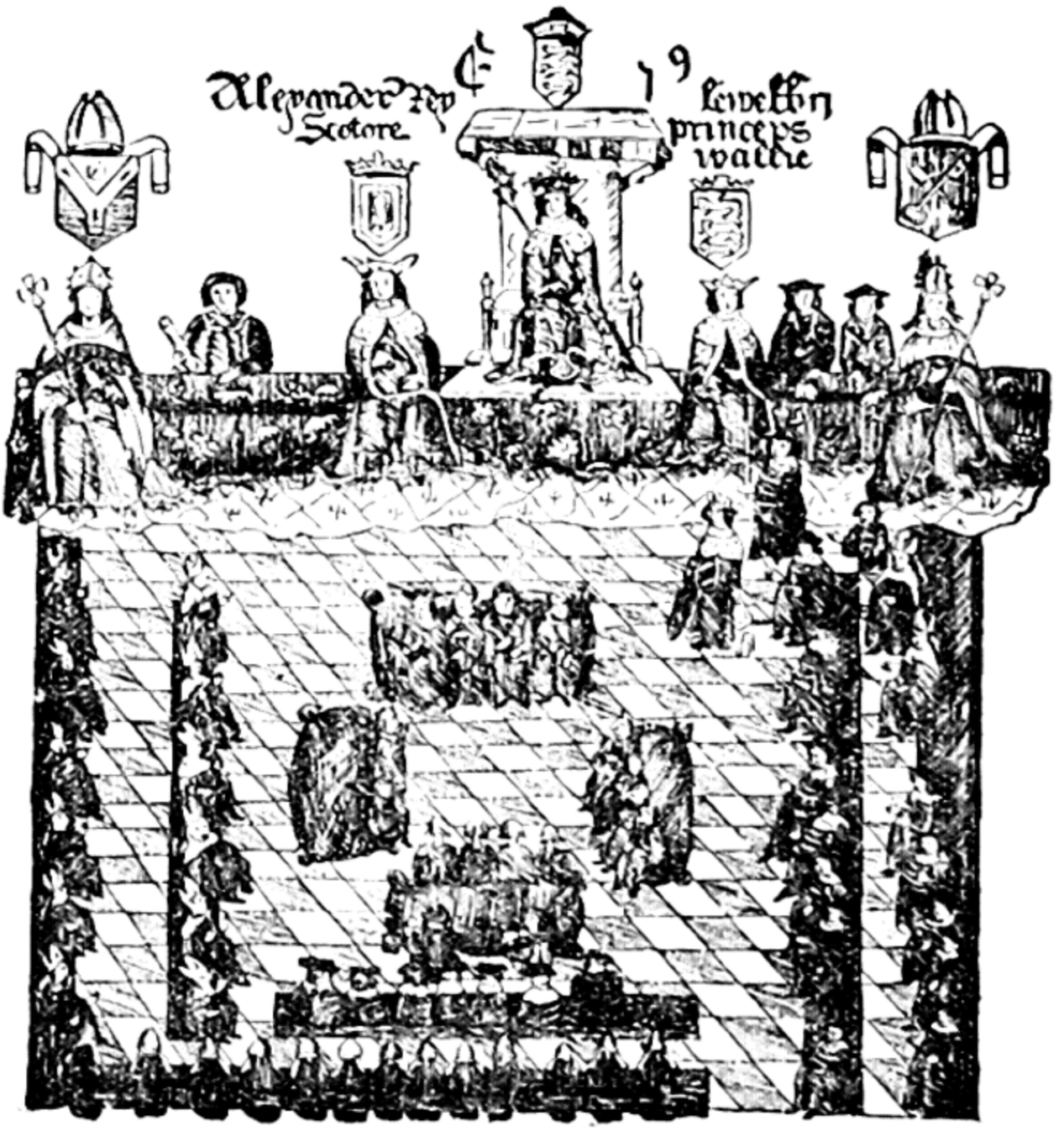
1. How were people governed in ancient times ? What happened in the Dark Ages ?
2. How were people protected under the Feudal System ?
3. How did noblemen become kings in the time of the Feudal System ?

LESSON 4 : THE GREAT CHARTER

[Key-Question 7 : *What promises did the king make in the Great Charter ?*]

§7. Most of the ancient civilizations produced great lawgivers who had made codes of law in which they laid down that rulers should behave in such-and-such a way for the good of their subjects and should not do this or that. But the real difficulty lay in *compelling the rulers to follow the rules.* An important step in that direction was taken when the leading noblemen of England in the year A.D. 1215 compelled their feudal overlord, King John, to put his royal seal upon a document called MAGNA CHARTA (the Great Charter). In this charter the king solemnly promised not to take away certain liberties from his subjects : no freeman was to be arrested, imprisoned, or otherwise punished, or to have his property seized, or his life taken without a proper trial by his equals, except in accordance with the laws of the country. But the very next king acted contrary to this promise, and made gifts to his friends out of money raised by taxation. The nobles then set up a council to advise the king specially upon taxation. This council was called PARLIAMENT.

A civil war then broke out between the king and his friends, on the one side, and the nobles who had set up the Parliament



PARLIAMENT IN 1295

whose leader was Earl SIMON DE MONTFORT. The citizens of London and other towns helped Earl Simon, and the king was defeated and captured. In A.D. 1265 a new Parliament was set up, and this time it included two knights (owners of large estates) from each shire (district or county) and two representatives of the citizens of each borough (town). These citizen members preferred to meet separately from the other

members of the Parliament who were all nobles and bishops (leaders of the church). This was how the two Houses of Parliament arose, the former being the Commons and the latter the Lords. And, because the Commons were mostly interested in matters of taxation and in preventing the king from breaking his promise to obey the Great Charter, they began the practice of refusing to agree to taxation unless the king first agreed to hear their complaints and remedy their grievances. As the king nearly always wanted more money, this gave the House of Commons very great power to force him to do as they desired.

[Key-Question 8: *How did Parliament check the king ?*]

§8. England is a tiny country compared with China or India, but the history of England between A.D. 1200 and A.D. 1700 is very important, because in those 500 years the English people led the way in setting up what is called parliamentary government. At first, Parliament did not actually govern the country. The king was still the real ruler. He had a council of ministers : men whom he chose to advise and help him, and others whom he appointed to look after the various departments, such as the army, the exchequer or treasury (that is, the money department), the deparment of justice (settling of disputes and keeping order), and so on. He appointed anyone he pleased to these posts.

But all those people had to be paid. In ancient times the king's officers were not usually paid in money. Instead they were granted estates or land (they were made jagirdars or zamindars, as we should say in India), and they lived on the income from these lands. When their number increased, it became the custom to pay them salaries in money instead. Where was the money to come from ? It had to come from taxes, that is money paid by the people into the king's treasury. Who was to decide how much they had to pay ? So long as

the king could decide this himself, he was free to do as he pleased. If he wanted to go to war against a neighbouring king, or to build a costly new palace, he had only to order that extra taxes must be paid. But when the House of Commons began to refuse to allow the king to collect taxes, this was a very great check upon the power of the king to do as he pleased.

You will see from this how the rights of ordinary citizens were first won from the king. MAGNA CHARTA is a very important landmark in the history of freedom because when it became the law the king could no longer do most of those tyrannical deeds which we have imagined he did in Lesson 2.

The practice also grew up that, if either of the two Houses of Parliament thought that a new law ought to be made or an old law changed, a 'bill' was passed in one of the two Houses and then sent to the other House for approval. When both had passed the bill, it was sent to the king for his signature, after which it became an Act of Parliament, a part of the law of the country which even the king was bound to obey.

We must, however, note here that although this form of government did a great deal to prevent a king from behaving like a tyrant, it was not a fully 'democratic' form of government. Even in the House of Commons there were representatives only of the richer people, the knights or country landowners, and the rich merchants of the towns. The ordinary working-people and all the poorer classes were at that time quite unrepresented. Moreover, the king could still have his own way to a large extent by arranging for his own friends to be sent as representatives from the shires and the boroughs. In spite of this, Parliament could check the king and his ministers a great deal, if it really wished to do so, by refusing to grant money to the king. It was this power to control the king

in money-matters which, later on, led to the great struggle about which we shall learn in Lesson 10.

EXERCISES

1. How did the first English Parliament come into existence? Who were its members?
2. What did Parliament do?
3. What is the 'power of the purse' and how did Parliament check the king by using it?

2

The New Learning

LESSON 5: FREEDOM OF TRAVEL

[Key-Question 9: *Why did the European travellers mostly go overland to the East before 1453, while after 1453 they went by sea to the West?*]

§9. There have always been men who like to see foreign countries that nobody has ever visited before. 2,400 years ago there was the Greek, HERODOTUS, who visited all the important countries around the Black Sea and the Mediterranean and went as far east as Persia—a long distance to travel from Greece in those days. There was the Chinese, FA-HIEN, who travelled up and down India for ten years, after having come from China across the Gobi Desert, through Tibet, and over the Himalayas. That was about 1,500 years ago. About 1,000 years ago there was LEIF ERICSON or ERIC THE RED, a Northman who sailed from Norway to Iceland and Greenland, and actually visited North America a few years later, though he did not stay there. Then, about 700 years ago, there was MARCO POLO who travelled from his home-town of Venice in Italy, through Central Asia to China. A little later there was IBN BATUTA, the most famous Muslim traveller, who visited Russia, Asia Minor, Arabia, East

Africa and India, where he stayed 8 years in the service of Mohammed Tughlak. From here he went via Ceylon Java and China, back to his home in Tangier (Morocco). Then he crossed the Sahara Desert and visited Timbuktu and other places on the River Niger. What a traveller!

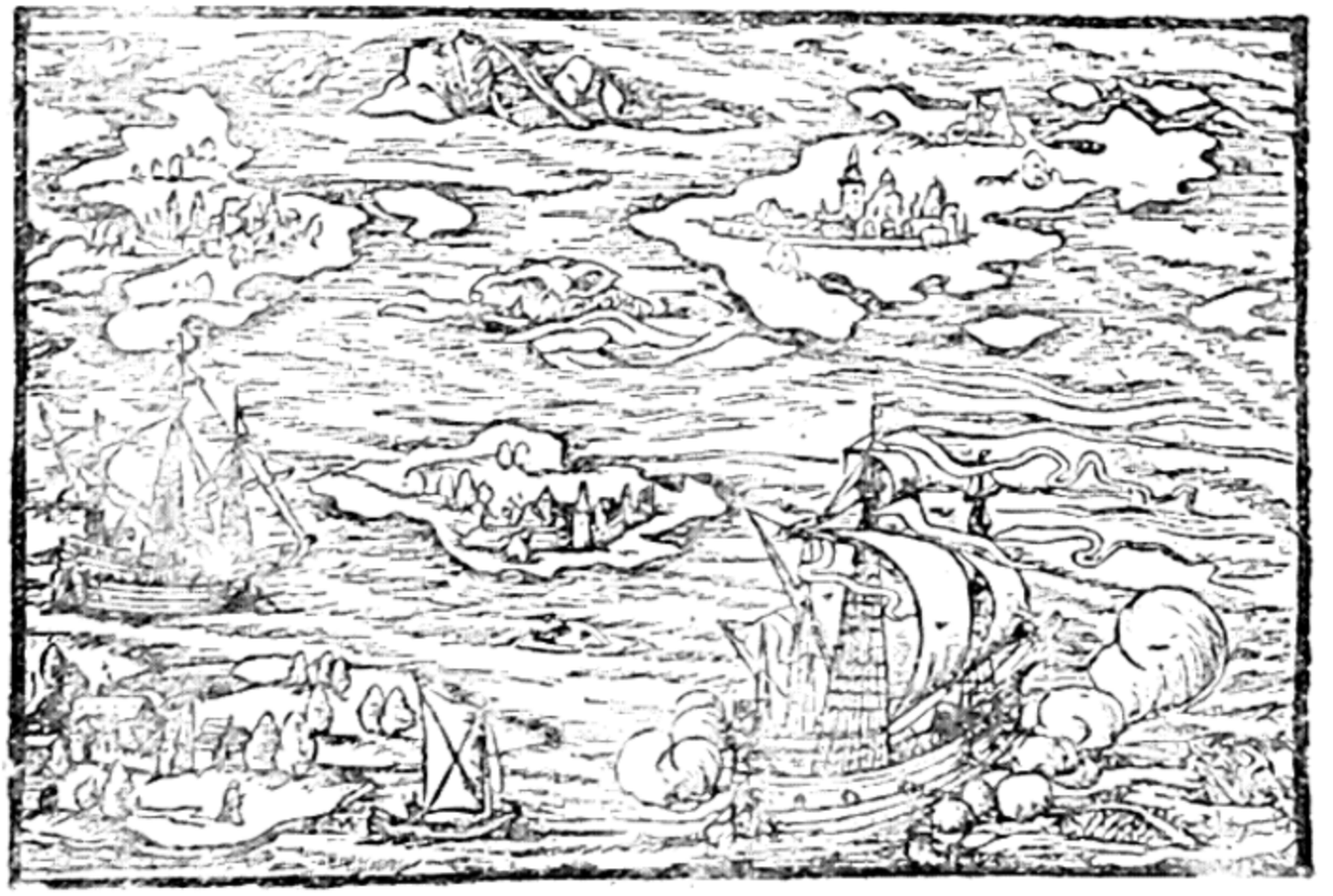


MARCO POLO SETS OUT [illegible] VENICE

But all these men, though they crossed deserts and high mountains and broad seas, visited countries where they found civilized people living in great cities and fertile plains. A new sort of travel began in A.D. 1492 when CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, helped with money by Queen Isabel of Spain, sailed from Spain across the Atlantic Ocean and discovered a new and almost empty continent—America.

It should not be forgotten that Columbus himself never knew that he had found a new continent. Until the day of his death he believed that he had reached some part of Asia by going westwards round the world instead of eastwards. In his last voyage he just reached the shore of Central America (where Honduras now is). He thought it was China, the country of the Great Khan.

Another discoverer of North America who also thought he had reached China was JOHN CABOT. Like Columbus, Cabot was a man of Genoa, the great seaport of Italy. Cabot was helped by King Henry VII of England, and by the merchants of the English port of Bristol. He sailed from Bristol in

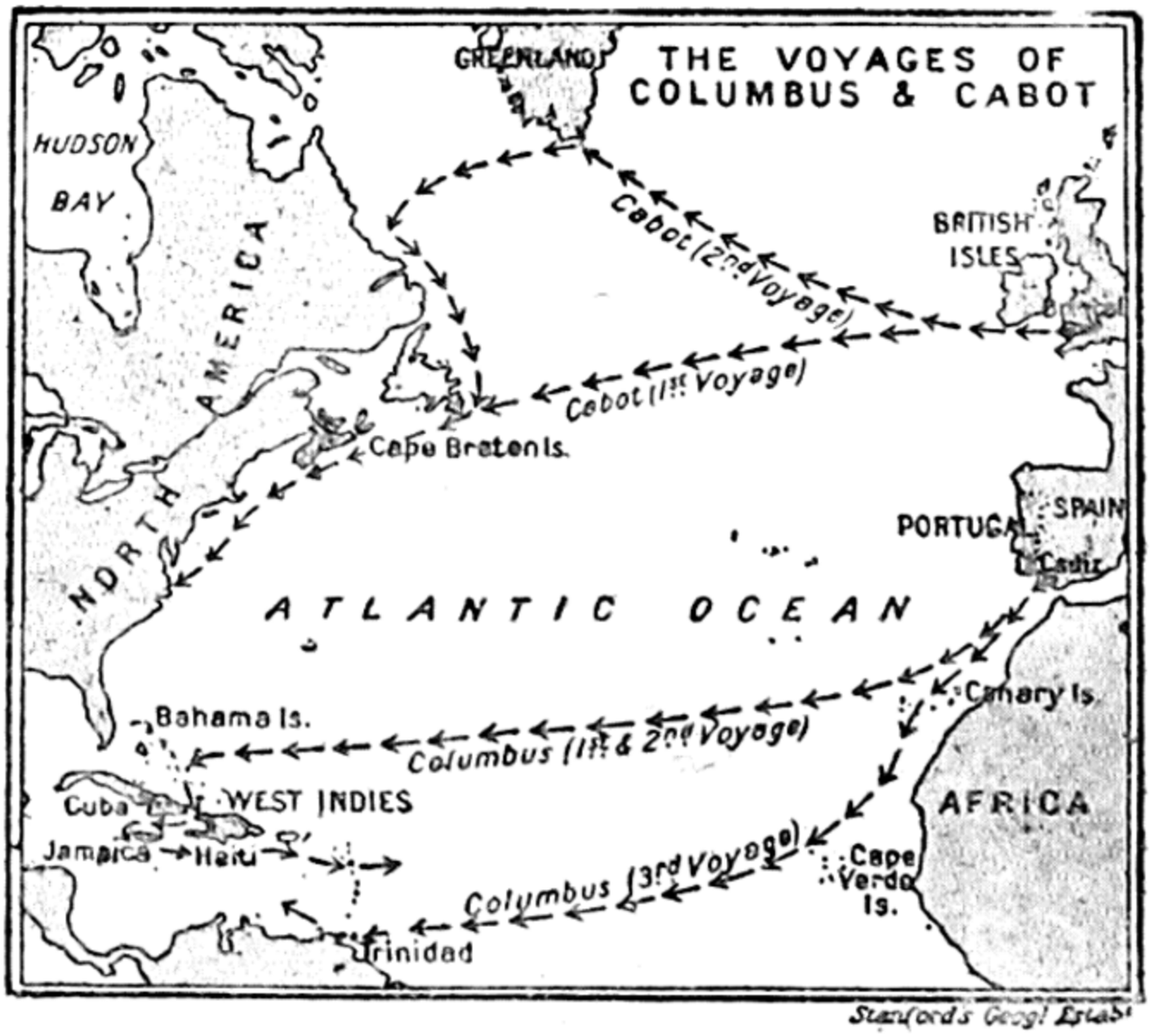


COLUMBUS'S SHIPS REACH AMERICA

1497 in a single small ship with only 18 men. After 52 days they sighted the coast of Cape Breton Island—almost the same part of America that Eric the Red had visited 500 years earlier.

Perhaps you wonder why these travellers all tried to reach India and China by going westwards. Why did they not go by the shortest way, which is to the east? First, you must remember that in those days there was no Suez Canal, so they could not have gone by ship all the way without going right round Africa. There was another reason, too, why they went westward. At this time a very warlike

Muslim people, the Ottoman Turks, had become powerful. They had conquered the whole of Asia Minor, Palestine, and Egypt. In 1453 they captured Constantinople (which was the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire) and soon afterwards they advanced right into Europe nearly as far as



THE VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS AND CABOT

Vienna. In earlier times, much trade between Europe and Asia had been carried on by merchants who carried their goods on the backs of camels, through Syria and Mesopotamia (now called Iraq) to Baghdad, or across the narrow isthmus of Suez, and then down the Red Sea and across the Indian Ocean by ship. But the Ottoman Turks put a stop to this. They did not like the European merchants whose

religion was Christianity. So the Europeans either had to give up their trade or find another way to India and China.

[Key-Question 10 : *Who were the early Portuguese travellers? Where did they go and why?*]

§10. The people who were keenest to find another way to India were the Portuguese. After many attempts some of them managed to get beyond Cape Verde where (as you can see from the map) the African coast begins to bend eastwards. In 1487 BARTHOLOMEW DIAZ reached the southernmost point of Africa and found that from here the coast begins to bend slightly northwards as well as eastwards. The men with Diaz refused to go any farther, so he had to return to Portugal. Ten years later, in 1497, VASCO DA GAMA was sent out by the king of Portugal to find out whether the report of Diaz was true.

Of course you know what Vasco da Gama discovered. He reached Malindi (near where Mombasa now stands) and from there, with the help of an Indian pilot, he sailed across the Indian Ocean and reached Calicut.



VASCO DA GAMA

The Portuguese travelled farther than India. They set up colonies in the south of Ceylon and also in the islands of the East Indies called the Moluccas or Spice Islands. In Java they found 'the most civilized people of these parts,' for Java had been colonized by Hindus, hundreds of years

earlier, and the great Hindu empire of MAJAPAHIT flourished there until it was conquered by Muslims shortly before the Portuguese arrived. The Portuguese even reached South China, where they set up a colony at Macao, near Canton. It still remains under their rule.

The Portuguese also discovered other new lands to the west. After Vasco da Gama's discovery of the sea-route to India round the Cape of Good Hope, many ships were sent out by the king of Portugal. In the year 1500, the men in one group of these ships, under a captain named CABRAL, first sighted the coast of Brazil. Brazil remained under Portuguese rule for more than 300 years.

The Spaniards, too, were busy discovering new lands. In 1519 the Spaniard HERNANDO CORTEZ discovered Mexico, and in 1533 FRANCISCO PIZARRO conquered Peru. You can read about these explorers in *The Struggle of Modern Man*, Section 17 (5th ed.).

Thus, within 50 years of Columbus's discovery of the West Indies, and of Vasco da Gama's journey across the Indian Ocean, the Portuguese and the Spaniards had opened up the way to new and mainly empty lands in the western hemisphere, and to ancient, civilized, rich and thickly populated lands in the east. After them came the Dutch, English and French explorers, merchants, and adventurers seeking fame, gold, and new knowledge.

EXERCISES

1. Make a list of the travellers mentioned in Lesson 5, and say in what century they lived, what countries they came from and where they went.
2. Why were the Portuguese the earliest to find new ways across the sea?
3. Why did the Portuguese, Dutch, English and French travellers make these dangerous journeys so far from their homes?

LESSON 6 : FREEDOM TO THINK AND KNOW

[Key-Question 11 : *How did the compass and the knowledge that the earth is a sphere reach Europe?*]

§11. Have you noticed one thing in the previous lesson? All the travellers whose names we mentioned before Columbus, (with the exception of Eric the Red) were travellers mostly by *land.* After Columbus they were nearly all travellers by *sea.* Can you think of some reasons for this fact? Please try.

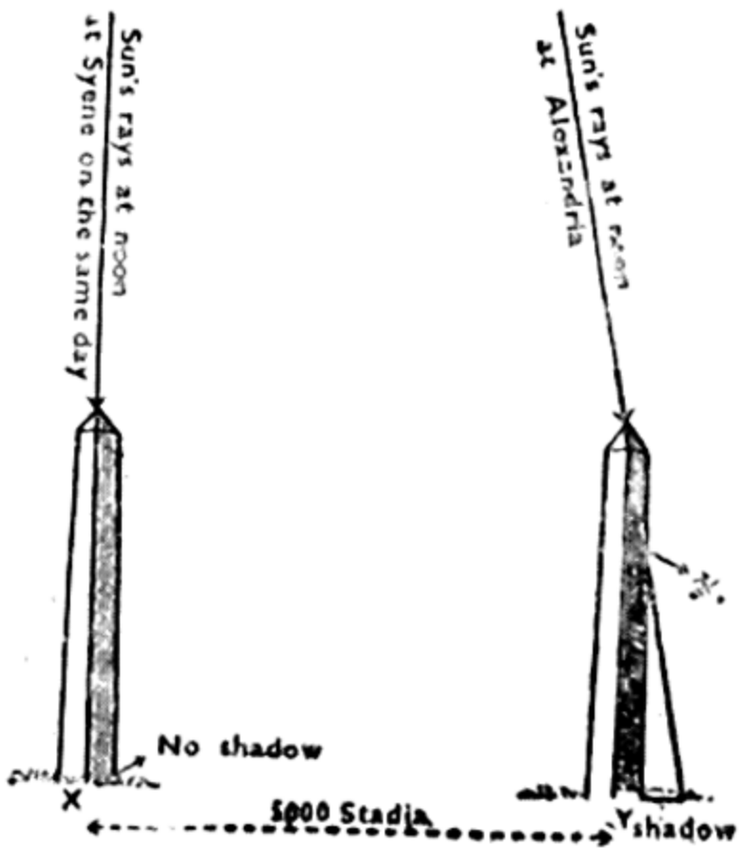
When you travel by sea you cannot stop a passer-by to ask him whether you are going the right way. So you must have some method of making sure that you are not going in the wrong direction. There are no signposts in the sea. How did the sailors of olden times manage? They found out their direction by means of the sun and the stars; but this was difficult on cloudy days. Then someone (probably the Chinese) discovered how to make a *compass.* You have read about the compass before, [1] so I will not say much about it here, except that the knowledge of it was probably carried to the Arabs by the Chinese about 800 or 1,000 years ago. The Chinese used to send out trading-ships to the East Indies and perhaps farther west. The Arabs traded in the Red Sea, the Persian Gulf, and as far east as India. They must have met the Chinese traders sometimes. The Arabs also met the traders of Europe in the Mediteranean Sea. At that time, the Arabs and the Turks were far ahead of the people of western Europe in the sciences of astronomy, medicine, mathematics and chemistry, and in the arts of weaving and metalwork. Of these things the Europeans learned much from the Arabs. They also learned the use of the mariner's compass. Columbus and Vasco da Gama could never have risked their ships and their men's lives on voyages

[1] See *The Struggle of Modern Man,* Section 13 (5th ed.).

lasting many weeks out of sight of land, unless they had had the compass to guide them.

There was another piece of knowledge which also gave them confidence, such as they could not have had a hundred years earlier. That was the knowledge that the earth is a sphere and not flat. Where did they get this knowledge? It also came through the Turkish capture of Constantinople.

Long, long before this time, about 200 B.C. (just after the reign of Ashoka in India), a great Greek geographer, named ERATOSTHENES, who lived in the city of Alexandria (founded by Alexander the Great, about 100 years earlier), found out that the earth is a globe. He even calculated[1] the length of its circumference, by observing the length of the sun's shadow



[1] X and Y were two exactly similar obelisks (stone pillars) situated at Alexandria and at Syene. The distance between Alexandria and Syene was known to be 5000 Greek 'stadia', i.e. about 551 miles. Eratosthenes found that when the sun was exactly over the Syene obelisk at noon (and therefore cast no shadow), there was a shadow from the Alexandria obelisk, showing that the sun's rays were coming from an angle of 7 1/5° from the vertical.

The earth's circumference subtends an angle of 360 degrees; so by simple proportion Eratosthenes calculated thus:—

XY : the circumference of the earth : : 7 1/5° : 360

i.e. circumference of earth

$$= \frac{551 \times 360 \times 5}{36} \text{ miles} = 27{,}500 \text{ miles.}$$

It was not until nearly 2,000 years later that the cicumference of the earth was proved to be about 25,000 miles. So Eratosthenes was not far wrong.

at the same time of day in two places in Egypt, at a known distance apart. The footnote on p. 22 explains the calculation. The discoveries of Eratosthenes were written in the Greek language, and copies of his books were in the libraries of Constantinople, which was the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire. When the city was about to be captured by the Turks, many of the scholars who were working in the university and the schools at Constantinople left the city, fearing that the Turks might kill them because they were Christians. Fortunately, they carried some of their most precious books with them, and this was how the forgotten knowledge of the ancient Greek scholars came to western Europe soon after the capture of Constantinople in the year 1453. It had been forgotten because, as I told you in Lesson 2, the barbarians completely destroyed the Roman civilization in western Europe.

Without this knowledge[1] that the earth is a globe, it is likely that Columbus, Magellan, Drake and others, would never have attempted their long sea-voyages; for, if they wanted to find a new route to China, they must take a new direction, and that would have been impossible if the earth was flat.

[1] This knowledge was only one of many precious things brought to western Europe in the books of the Greek scholars. Among others were the following: the great story-poems of HOMER, the *Iliad*, about the capture of Troy, and the *Odyssey*, about the adventures of Ulysses; the great dramas written by ancient Greek poets, such as SOPHOCLES, the laws drawn up by SOLON; the history books of THUCYDIDES; the descriptions of other lands and peoples by HERODOTUS the traveller; the great teachings of SOCRATES and his pupil PLATO; the speeches of DEMOSTHENES; the scientific books of ARISTOTLE. These were all works of men who lived in the 'Golden Age' of Greece, a little later than the time of Buddha in India and Confucius in China. There were also the works of the later Greek scholars of the University of Alexandria known as the 'Museum'. Besides those of Eratosthenes, mentioned above, there were the works of EUCLID on geometry, of ARCHIMEDES on hydrostatics, of HEROPHILUS on the anatomy of the human body, and of HERON who discovered the power of steam and made a simple form of steam-engine.

[Key-Question 12: *How did the 'New Learning' come to Europe and how did it spread?*]

§12. The stream of 'ancient learning' which poured first into Italy, and then into France, Spain, Central Europe, and finally England, was certainly one of the main causes of the spread of the 'new learning'. This period of European history is sometimes called the RENAISSANCE,[1] which means 're-birth': it is also sometimes called the period of the Revival of Learning. Both these names signify that the desire for knowledge, for better ways of living, for the discovery of new lands and new things, which had been so strong in the ancient Greeks, came to life again in Europe between the years A. D. 1300 and A. D. 1600.



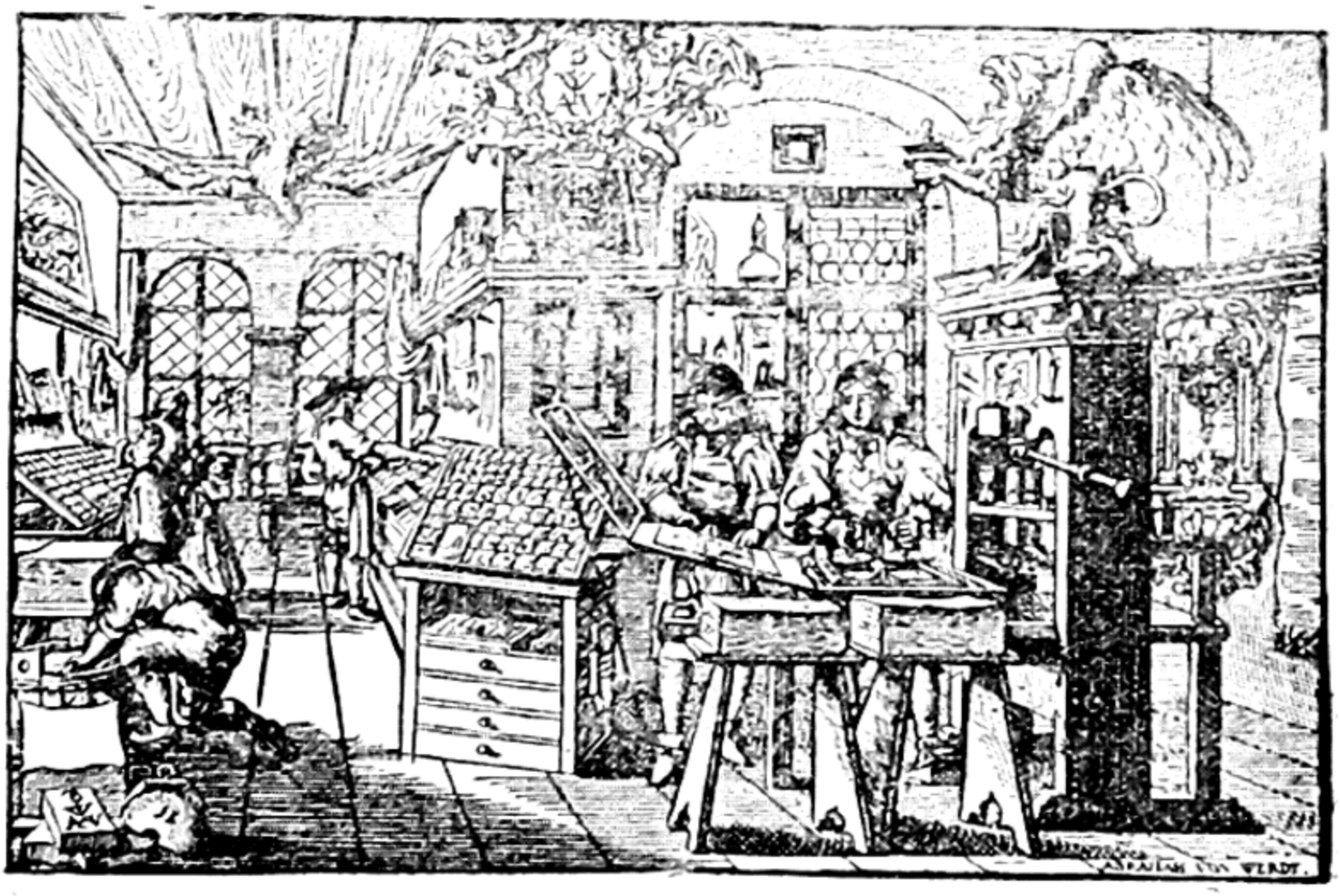
WRITING BOOKS BY HAND

One of the reasons why the knowledge of the ancient Greeks had not spread to western Europe in earlier times was that they did not know the arts of making paper and of printing. Fortunately, these had reached Europe by the time of the Renaissance. The art of paper-making was brought by the Arabs who, as in the case of the compass, had learned it from the Chinese. Printing from movable types—that is from separate letters of the alphabet cut in wood or made of metal—was invented in Europe about

[1] Pronounced 'ren-nay-sahnse'.

1450.[1] The earliest printed matter in Europe was the work of JOHANNES GUTENBERG, a German.

This invention was made just at the right time, for with the help of printing the new knowledge could be spread far and wide. In the Middle Ages every copy of a book was



EARLY PRINTING PRESS

written by hand. Books were, therefore, very rare and so costly that, to prevent their loss, they were often fastened with chains to reading-desks.

The Renaissance was not only a period of revival of learning and a period of discovery of new lands, it was also a period of new art, new poetry, new building, and new education.

[1] The Chinese had invented printing long before that, but their printing was not from movable type but from single blocks of wood on which all the letters on one page were cut. As far as we know, the discovery of printing from movable type in Europe was a new one, and not copied from the Chinese.

You have read about LEONARDO DA VINCI,[1] the wonderful Italian who was painter, sculptor, musician, and engineer, all in one. Florence, the city where Leonardo first worked, was famous (and still is) for its beautiful buildings with wonderful paintings on the walls and ceilings, lovely carved doors, and fine statues. Many schools and universities were founded, too, at this time, such as the school at Mantua in Italy where VITTORINO DA FELTRE educated the sons of noblemen and the sons of peasants together in a fine building set in a lovely garden. He taught them swimming, riding, archery, tennis, and gymnastics, as well as Latin, Greek and mathematics. A very modern school!

EXERCISES

1. How did the people of Europe come into contact with the Arabs, and what did they learn from them?
2. In what ways was the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453 a very important event for Europe?
3. What was the 'New Learning' and how was it spread in Europe?

LESSON 7: THE REFORMATION OF RELIGION

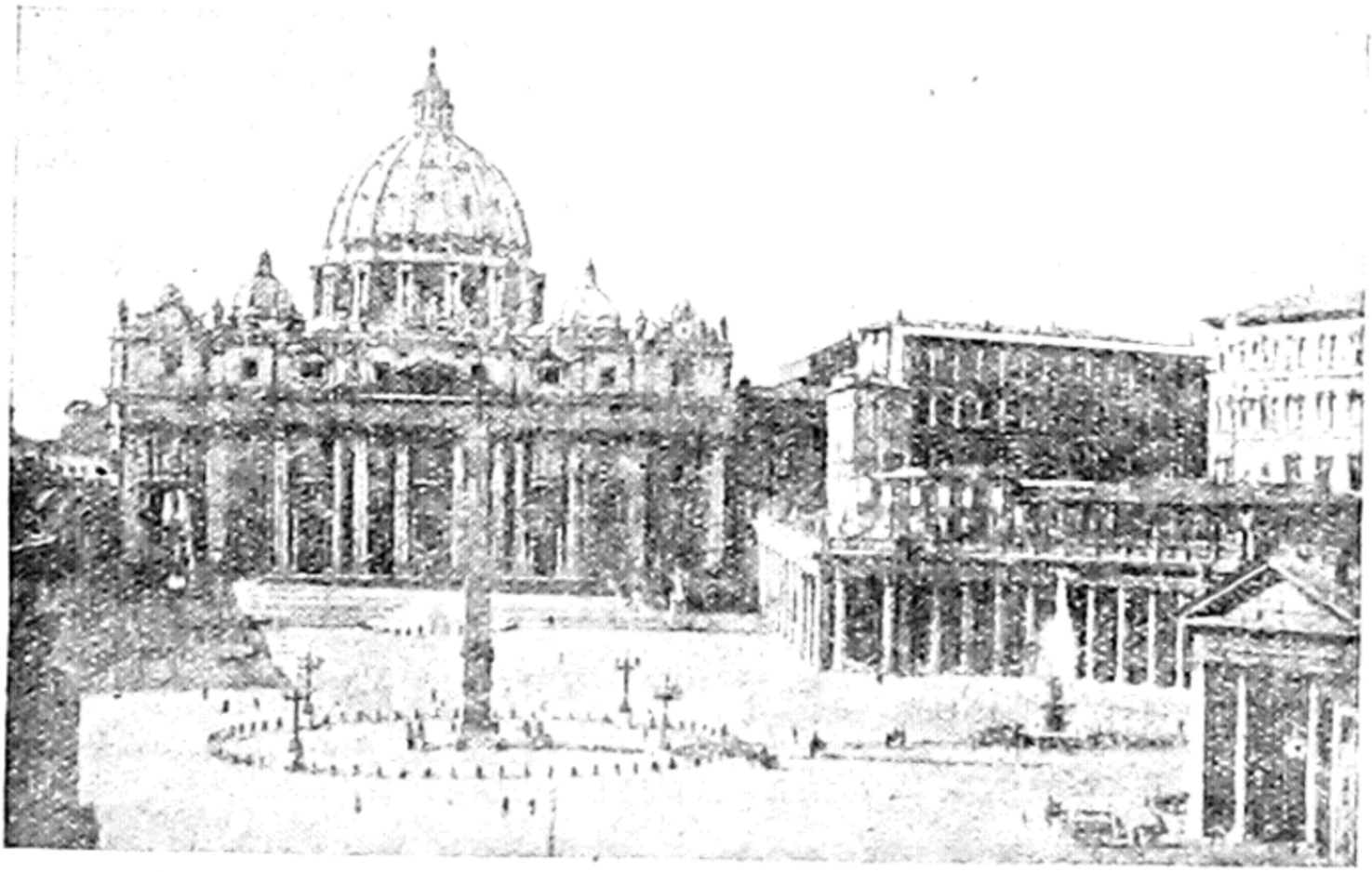
[Key-Question 13: *How do priests become powerful? To what dangers does this lead?*]

§13. When people get new ideas it often happens that they also begin to question their old beliefs and customs. In the Middle Ages all the people of western Europe were members of the Roman Catholic Church, of which the head is the Bishop of Rome, known as the Pope ('Papa' or Father). One of the beliefs of Roman Catholics is that the Pope is appointed by God; and that, therefore, whatever he says is true and must be obeyed.

The teachings of the Christian religion are collected in the book called the Bible, a part of which was originally written in Hebrew, the language of the Jews of Palestine,

[1] See *The Struggle of Modern Man*, Section 12 (5th ed.).

and part of which was written in Greek. But as Latin (the language of the Romans) was the language used in the ceremonies of the Roman Catholic Church (just as Sanskrit is used by all Hindus for their worship, and Arabic by all Muslims), the Pope had ordered that the Bible should



St Peter's Cathedral, Rome, and the Pope's Residence

be translated into Latin. Though Latin was the language of the Church, it was not the language of the ordinary people. Just in the same way in India and Pakistan, Sanskrit and Arabic are the languages of religion and learning, but are not spoken usually in daily life, except by pundits, moulvis or learned men. So, too, in Europe, Latin was only understood by priests and scholars. The ordinary people could not read the Bible for themselves but had to have it read for them and explained by the priests. This gave great power to the priests, because every good Christian believed

that whatever was in the Bible was the word of God himself and if the priests said that such-and-such a thing was written in the Bible, the people felt that they must believe it and act according to it.

So long as the priests were good and honest men, there seemed no harm in this. But, as in the case of every religion the world has ever known, some bad people, as well as many good ones, became priests or rose to important positions of power. It was so in the case of the Christian religion, too. Some of the priests, and even a few of the Popes were not truly men of religion: they used their position to get more power, more wealth or more luxury for themselves. This happened particularly in the latter part of the Middle Ages, from about A.D. 1200 to A.D. 1300.

When such things happened, it was natural that men who were sincere about their religion should begin to wonder whether everything that the priests told them was true. How could they find out? There was only one way: to read the Bible themselves and try to understand what is actually written there.

[Key-Question 14: *What did Luther do, and for what are Erasmus and Sir Thomas More, and St Ignatius of Loyola famous?*]

§14. One of the first to do this was JOHN WYCLIFFE, who was a Roman Catholic priest of England and Head of Balliol College, one of the oldest colleges of the University of Oxford. Wycliffe specially attacked the Roman Catholic Church because many of the monasteries were very rich, and he declared that, according to the teaching of Christ, the Church should concern itself only with religious affairs and not with property. In order to prove to people who could

not understand Latin that this was right, Wycliffe translated the Latin Bible into English about A.D. 1382.

Most of Wycliffe's books were written in Latin, and as this language was understood by scholars all over Europe,



LUTHER BURNS THE POPE'S ORDERS

his ideas spread into other countries. One of his most important followers was JOHN HUSS, who lived in the country now called Czechoslovakia, and became Rector (head) of the University of Prague. Huss translated some of Wycliffe's books into the Czech language. In his own writings and sermons he also attacked the Roman Catholic Church for doing and teaching things which he believed were contrary to the Bible. For this he had to suffer a terrible punishment. He was brought before Roman Catholic judges who declared that his teachings were wicked and dangerous, and ordered him to say publicly that he had been wrong and to

promise not to teach such things any more. Huss refused, and he was then tied by iron chains to a post and burned alive in 1414.

But even such punishments did not stop people from thinking and saying what they thought, and the ideas of Wycliffe and Huss began to spread especially in northern Europe. About 100 years after the death of Huss a German monk named MARTIN LUTHER began to preach against some of the teachings and actions of the Roman Catholic Church which he believed to be wrong. The Pope ordered him to stop doing so, but as Luther would not obey, he was declared to be no longer a member of the Church. He would probably have suffered the same punishment as John Huss, but so many people in Germany agreed with his teachings that it was impossible for the Pope to get Luther put to death. In 1522, Luther translated into German that part of the Bible which contains the teachings of Christ, and in 1523 he began to set up a 'Reformed Church'. This brought about the division of Christians into 'Catholics' and 'Protestants' (the latter being those who 'protested' against the teachings and actions of the Roman Catholic Church).



ERASMUS

There were many good Christians, however, who tried hard to set right the evils without leaving the Rome Catholic

Church. Among the greatest of these were two friends: ERASMUS, a great Dutch scholar, and SIR THOMAS MORE, who was for some time Lord Chancellor of England (i.e the highest judge, and president of the House of Lords). Erasmus and More both wrote books showing in what ways the Church was allowing mistakes to be made, but they did not think it right to work against the Pope as Luther did. Thomas More lived in the time of King Henry VIII of England, and when that king wanted to disobey the Pope and make himself head of the English Church, More refused to agree to it. He was beheaded for this act of disobedience to the king.



ST. IGNATIUS OF LOYOLA

One of the most famous men who tried to reform the Roman Catholic Church, without destroying it, was IGNATIUS OF LOYOLA, the founder of the Society of Jesus or the Jesuit Order. You can read about him in §28 of *The Struggle of Modern Man* (5th ed.).

EXERCISES

1. Why were the priests powerful in Europe in the Middle Ages?
2. Why did some people begin to 'protest' against the actions of the priests and what happened to them?
3. What happened in Europe as a result of the Protestant Movement? Mention several results and their causes.
4. What work was done by St Ignatius of Loyola and the Jesuit Order he founded?

LESSON 8 : INTOLERANCE AND ITS RESULTS

[Key-Question 15 : *Was 'freedom of religion' the result of the Reformation Movement ?*]

§15. The struggle between Roman Catholics and Protestants became much more serious when powerful kings and rulers supported one side or the other. In some cases (as in that of King Henry VIII of England) they took the side against the Pope. They did not do this for religious reasons but because they wanted to take away power and wealth from the Pope and the Church and to have it for themselves. In northern Europe this division among Christians led to terrible wars, one of which went on for nearly thirty years. On one side were the kings and princes and noblemen who supported the Pope (the Catholics) and on the other side were those who declared themselves 'Protestants'. Both sides made the ordinary people join their armies. They attacked their opponents' cities and towns ; fields were left uncultivated and towns and villages were destroyed. Thousands were killed in the fighting and thousands more died of starvation and disease. This happened most of all in Germany where much of the fighting took place. The fighting stopped the progress of that country for nearly two hundred years, but it certainly did not prove whether Protestants or Catholics were right. The side which had the best soldiers won, but everyone suffered.

To us, living in modern times, it seems strange that a ruler should insist upon his subjects following the same religion as himself. 'Freedom of religion', or freedom of thought and belief, is a right which we so commonly enjoy that we are apt to forget that it is one which hundreds of thousands of our ancestors fought and died to gain. A few

hundred years ago men and women were put in prison, cruelly tortured, and killed by being burned alive or in other dreadful ways, if they refused to change their religion and so follow the religion of the ruler of their country. How was the right of 'freedom of religion' won, and who won it for us?

In Lesson 7 we learned about the Reformation Movement, but perhaps you have noticed there that the struggle was not for freedom for all people to believe whatever they thought right, but only for the victory of one side or the other, Catholic or Protestant. It is a sad fact that in every country where the struggle took place, the winners immediately began to imprison, torture and kill those who were not willing to agree with their beliefs. They fought for 'toleration' of their own religion, but when they had won their victory, they were quite 'intolerant' towards anyone who disagreed with them.

[Key-Question 16: *Why did the Pilgrim Fathers go to America? What did they do there?*]

§16. Another example of intolerance is to be found in the story of the Pilgrim Fathers.

We read in Lesson 7 how King Henry VIII of England wanted to make himself head of the Church in England, in place of the Pope. This led to a complete separation of the Church of England from the Roman Catholic Church. The Church of England came to be known as one of the Protestant churches.

There were many people, however, who believed that this change was not enough. They wanted to get rid of most of the old ceremonies and many of the Roman Catholic beliefs which, in their opinion, were wrong and useless. But King James I who was ruling England at the time of the Pilgrim Fathers did not like this. He ordered them to accept the Church

of England religion which he had himself accepted. Those who refused to do so were very cruelly punished by being whipped, by having their ears cut off, and by having heavy fines or imprisonment imposed on them. About the year 1620, a group of these non-conformists[1] decided to leave England altogether. First, they thought of going to Holland which had just become an independent Protestant country after fighting against the Roman Catholic ruler, King Philip II of Spain. But after some time they decided to go farther away, to America. One hundred and two men, women and children, set out to sail across the Atlantic Ocean in a small sailing ship called THE MAYFLOWER. They landed at a place on the American coast a little south of where the city of Boston now stands. Here they started a colony which, after some years of struggle and hardship, grew and became prosperous. But even these people, who had left their motherland in order to have freedom to worship in their own way, were not tolerant towards others. When other colonists arrived whose ideas were slightly different from theirs, they were so harsh to them that the newcomers had to go to other places and start new colonies of their own. This is how the colonies of Maine and Connecticut arose, north and south

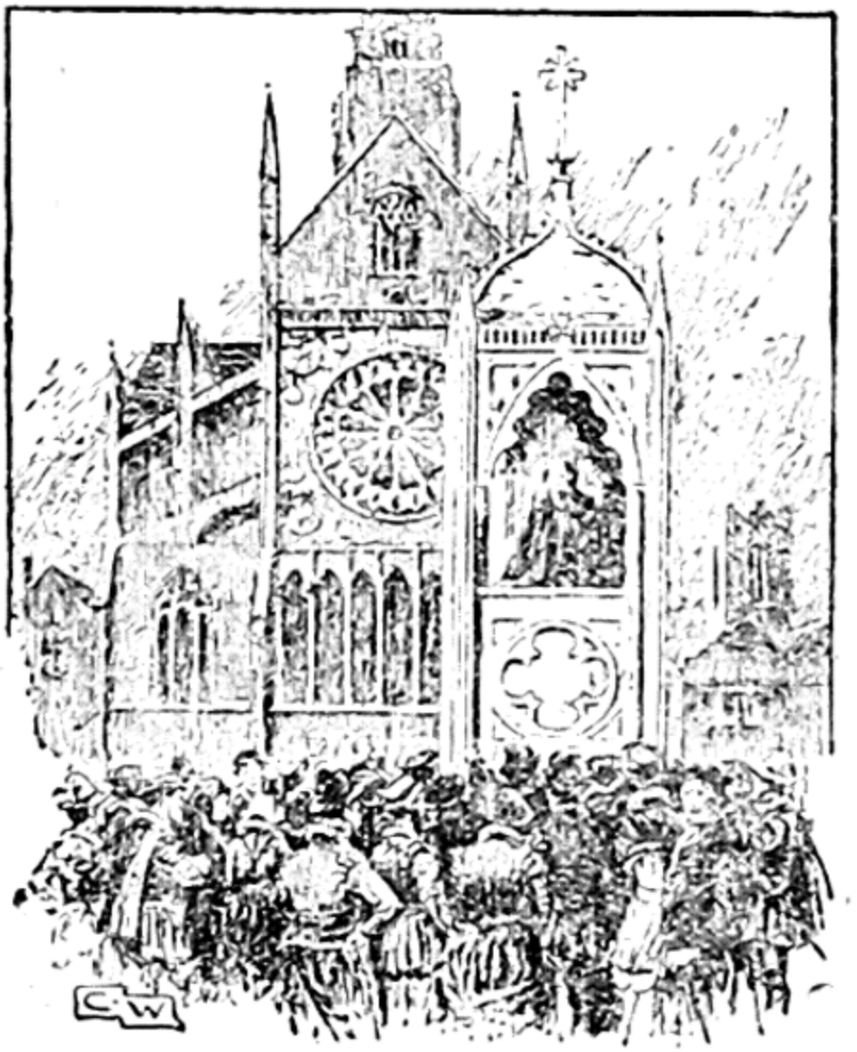


KING HENRY VIII

[1] Those who refuse to 'conform', or obey.

of the original colony of Massachusetts, which the Pilgrim Fathers had founded.

It was not until about 100 years ago that the majority of people in western European countries came to the conclusion that, in matters of religion, it is best to allow every one to believe whatever he or she thinks to be right, to allow each one to worship (or not to worship) God in his own way and not to let anyone interfere with the equal rights of others. The Chinese, one of the most highly civilized peoples in the world, found this out long ago, and so did most of the Hindus; but it has taken the rest of the world a very long time to come to this stage. There are still, unfortunately, some people in the world who do not yet understand this, and who go on making trouble for us all by trying with threats of force or fear to compel others to change their minds. But let us hope that 'freedom of religion' is one of the freedoms which mankind has at last won without any danger of losing it again. This can be so if you, by your own actions, help to guard that freedom equally for yourself and for all others, even if you do not agree with them.



PREACHING IN PUBLIC

EXERCISES

1. What is 'tolerance'? Did the Reformation Movement bring it about?
2. What did the Pilgrim Fathers want? What did they do to gain their object?
3. Why is intolerance dangerous? How can we get rid of it?

3

The Growth of Nationalism

LESSON 9: THE BIRTH OF THE MODERN NATIONS

[Key-Question 17: *What is 'nationalism' and how did it arise?*]

§17. The greatest difference between 'the modern world' and 'the world of the Middle Ages' is the existence of nations in the modern world. We must know how these nations came into existence, and why.

You have learned something about 'Nationalism' in Chapter 11 of *The Struggle of Modern Man.* You know that nationalism is an idea or a feeling of unity which has grown up in the minds of people who live in some part or geographical unit of the world. In 'the ancient world' of China and India, people did not feel united as nations: they thought of themselves as belonging to a particular region, village or town; more often in India they felt united as members of a group of families or a caste. In the time of the Roman empire there was a wider feeling of unity created by the idea of Roman citizenship: anyone (provided he was a free man and not a slave) might become a 'Roman citizen' no matter in what part of the Roman empire he had been born. And the Roman empire at its greatest extent, you should remember, stretched from Mesopotamia (Iraq) to England. In the Middle Ages, too, there was a wider feeling of unity because the people of the whole of Europe (except Russia and the Balkans) were members of the Roman

Catholic Church and obeyed one religious head, the Pope in Rome. This unity was broken when the Protestant churches arose from the time of Luther onwards.

One of the chief causes of the growth of the feeling of 'nationalism' is an attack by one group of people upon another group, which the latter can only resist if its members unite. If the attacker is much stronger and so ruthless that the victim is immediately crushed and destroyed, there may be no time for the feeling of nationalism to grow. This was the case with some of the barbarian attacks on civilized peoples, or peoples that had become slack by too much wealth. But it was not the case when Aurangzeb tried to crush the Marathas and the Sikhs. In both these cases the people who were attacked began to unite in resisting the attacker. This sort of nationalism may be called 'defensive nationalism' because it develops when people unite to defend themselves against invasion or foreign rule. Two other forms of nationalism are described in lesson 33.

[Key-Question 18 : *How and when did the nations of Europe arise?*]

§18. In order to understand the history of modern times we must know something more about the first growth of nations in Europe. Among the earliest of such nations was the French. In A.D. 1337 an English king, whose forefathers had formerly ruled over parts of France, claimed that he was also king of France. He sent his army to invade France, and for nearly 100 years the English ruled parts of France. Then a young French girl, JOAN OF ARC, aroused the French to join together. Joan herself put on armour and led the French soldiers into battle. Through their unity the French were able to defeat and drive out the English, so that Charles VII was crowned at Rheims in 1429 as king of all France.

About the same time the Spanish people, too, were growing into a nation. Throughout the Dark Ages the greater part of Spain was under the Muslims who had conquered it in the eighth century A.D. The small kingdoms under Christian rule in the north of the country could not unite. From about A.D. 1200 they began to do so ; so that by the fourteenth century most of Spain had been reconquered except for the small Moorish kingdom of Granada in the south. In 1492 this kingdom was captured by King Ferdinand V and Queen Isabella, and then all Spain was freed.[1] It was with the help of this same King Ferdinand and his wife Queen Isabella, that Christopher Columbus went on his great voyages of discovery.



JOAN OF ARC

[1] Another country which threw off Muslim rule at this time was Russia. In the Middle Ages nearly all Russia was under Mongol kings, descendants of the great Jenghis Khan. There were Christian princes and dukes in the northern and western parts but they had to pay tribute to the Muslim rulers of the south and east. In 1480 the Duke of Moscow, Ivan III, refused to pay this tribute any longer and declared himself to be 'Tsar' (Caesar or King) of all Russia.

An interes ting small nation gained its independence about 1474 : this was the Swiss people who till then had been harshly ruled by the Austrian kings. The Swiss were one of the first European peoples to decide that they would not be governed by a king, but would be a ' republic ' with an elected head of the government. The Swiss are interesting too because their unity was not prevented by differences of language : two-thirds of the people speak German, one-fifth speak French, and most of the others speak Italian.

The English had been slowly growing into a united people after the conquest of England by the Normans in A.D. 1066. They were safe from attack except from across the sea, and it was not until Spain became a powerful nation on the sea



THE SPANISH ARMADA

that England was in danger of another invasion. The attack by Spain was due to two causes : first, the Spaniards were angry with the English sailors for attacking Spanish ships that brought gold from the newly discovered lands in America. Second, England had taken the Protestant side in the Reformation struggle, and King Philip II of Spain was

the most powerful ruler on the Roman Catholic side. He wanted to punish the English for leaving the Roman Catholic Church, and the Pope encouraged him to do so. He hoped that those Englishmen who were still Roman Catholics would help him by fighting against their own countrymen and their queen (Queen Elizabeth). But nationalism now proved to be stronger than religion. Nearly all the Roman Catholic English fought alongside of the Protestant English against the Spanish invaders. In 1588, King Philip's great 'Armada'—a huge fleet of warships carrying soldiers to invade England—was completely defeated by the English navy whose ships were smaller but very skilfully managed. England thus became a united nation at this time; Scotland was joined to England in 1603 when the next king, James I, came to the throne, because he was the heir to the crowns both of England and Scotland. Wales had been joined to England in A.D. 1284[1].

The other nations of modern Europe did not come into existence until about 200 years later. We have seen in Lesson 8 how the terrible 'Thirty Years' War' between Protestants and Catholics stopped the growth of the nations of northern Europe. Italy was made up of a large number of small states (the 'dukedoms' of Milan, Genoa, Venice, Florence, Naples, etc.) which were under rival dukes who would not join together. The Balkan peoples were under the rule of the Turks, and the modern nations of Greece,

[1] Another nation which came into existence because of the attempt of King Philip II to force the people to remain Roman Catholics was the Netherlands (now separated into Holland and Belgium). Those countries were then under Spanish rule. When King Philip sent his army to force the people to give up Protestantism, they united against him under a great leader named William of Orange, 'the Silent'. After nearly forty years of terrible fighting and suffering the Netherlanders gained their independence. The descendants of William of Orange have continued to rule Holland down to the time of the present Queen.

Bulgaria and Rumania were not formed until about 100 years ago when Turkish rule was thrown off.

This period of growing nationalism was a period of powerful kings and queens, and these rulers certainly helped to strengthen the national feelings of their people.

EXERCISES

1. Why was there no nationalism in ancient India and in the Middle Ages?
2. How did nationalism arise? Give examples.
3. Make a list of the modern nations of Europe and when they came into existence.

LESSON 10: THE 'DIVINE RIGHT OF KINGS'

[Key-Question 19: *Who were the strong kings of the sixteenth century?*]

§19. We must now go on with our study of how freedom from fear of the king's tyranny was won. In Lesson 4 we learned how King John of England was forced to sign THE GREAT CHARTER in the year 1215, and how the people of England won some important rights with the help of Parliament which was started in 1265.

In some other countries, too, Parliaments were started under different names. Spain had its *Cortes*, France had its *States-General*. But those countries were unlucky, in one sense, in having such powerful kings that their Parliaments were unable to control the king's power in the same way as the English Parliament. The French Parliament was started in 1302: it consisted of representatives of the nobles, the clergy (leaders of the Church) and the ordinary people. But the French kings did not often summon it. They preferred to rule without the help of the 'States-General'; after 1614 it held no meeting for nearly 200 years! Holland was a country which set up a Parliament later, and in this case it proved very useful in helping the Dutch nation to win freedom under William of Orange. It was also called

the States-General and, like the English Parliament at first, it contained mostly representatives of the nobility and the big towns.

The 100 years from about A.D. 1500 to about A.D 1600 was a period when there were powerful kings in nearly every important country of the world. Let us make a list.

IN INDIA: In the north were the Great Moguls, Babar and Akbar. In the south, the empire of Vijayanagar with king Krishnadevaraya.

IN THE MIDDLE EAST: Suleiman the Magnificent, Khalipha of the Ottoman Turks, who ruled all south-east Europe, Asia Minor, and north Africa. (See map on p. 43.) He almost captured Vienna in 1529.



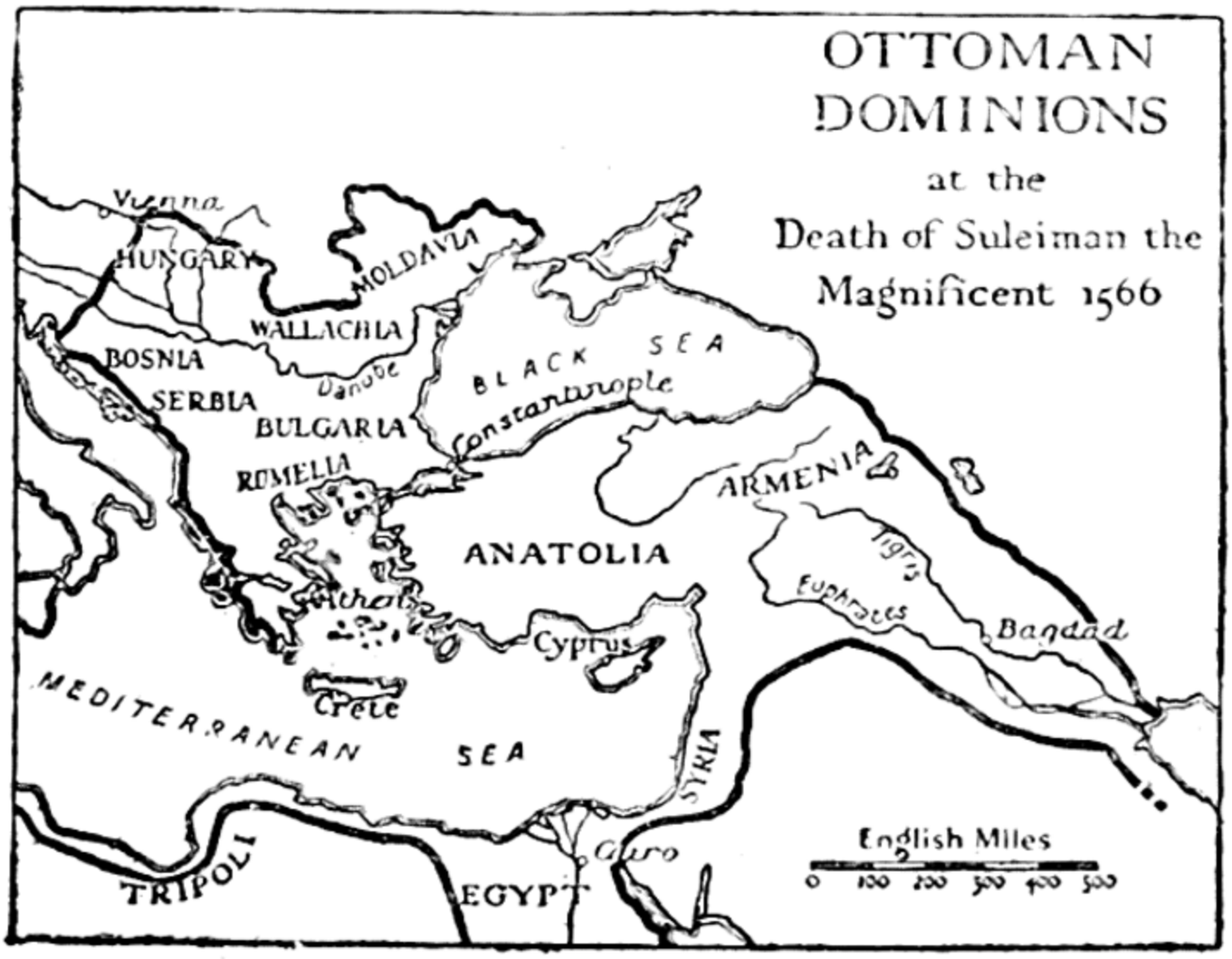
SULEIMAN THE MAGNIFICENT

IN EUROPE: *Spain*: Charles V and Philip II (of the Spanish Armada); *France*: Francis I, and Henry IV (of Navarre); *England*: Henry VIII and Queen Elizabeth.

All these rulers loved power. Some of them used it wisely and well.

It was in 1588, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth (when Shakespeare was a young man), that the invasion of England by the army of King Philip II of Spain with the Spanish Armada, was prevented. This great danger united the English people wonderfully. Nobles and commoners, rich and poor, merchants and artisans and farmers, Catholics and Protestants alike, helped eagerly to stop the Spanish invasion. When Queen Elizabeth died in 1603,

the English were not in a mood to put up for long with kings who believed in 'absolute monarchy', who thought they could tax their subjects as they pleased, or force them to change their religion. But James I, who next came to the English throne,



was a man who believed in absolute monarchy. It is surprising that he managed to remain on the throne for over 20 years. His son Charles I was not so fortunate.

[Key-Question 20 : *What did King Charls I of England want to do, and what happened to him?*]

§20. Charles had the same ideas as his father. He believed in being an absolute king, and he believed that it was his right to be so. He believed he had been born a king by the will of God, and that God had given him the 'divine right' to rule as he thought best. Charles was angry with the English Parliament (annoyed because of certain things that James I

had done) when it told him that he could have the money from certain taxes for one year only, and that after that, they would consider the question again. He dissolved Parliament (that is, he ordered it to be brought to an end) and tried to collect taxes *without* its permission. When some of his subjects refused to pay, he imprisoned them. But, in 1628, he found he could not get enough money, and he



CROMWELL DISSOLVING PARLIAMENT

had to summon another Parliament. This Parliament immediately passed a very important resolution. It is called the PETITION OF RIGHT. It lays down that:

(1) The king shall collect no taxes without the consent of Parliament.

(2) No one shall be imprisoned without being informed of the reason, and without a proper trial.

(3) People charged with offences against the Law shall be tried openly by the ordinary judges and not by court-

martial (military law, which is much more severe), or secretly.

(4) People shall not be forced to keep the king's soldiers in their houses and feed them free of charge.

Parliament refused to grant Charles any money until he had agreed to these demands. He agreed, in order to get money; but the very next year he dissolved Parliament again, broke his promise, and went on trying to rule the country in his own way. He somehow managed to do this for the next eleven years, with the help of two powerful ministers. When he could manage it no longer he had to summon Parliament again and ask for money. Parliament refused money and the king sent it away. But he had to call it back after six months, and this time Parliament was determined not to be sent away again. It demanded that the two ministers should be put to death for treason (acting against their own country), and it had them beheaded. Charles then called upon the army to fight for him; and Parliament formed its own army to fight the king. There was Civil War in England from 1642 to 1649. The wealthy merchants, the townspeople, the people who wanted freedom of religion for themselves, and the people of the south and east, including London (even then the greatest port and the richest city in England), were on the side of Parliament. Most of the nobles and bigger landowners, the Roman Catholics, and the supporters of the king's Church



OLIVER CROMWELL

(the Church of England), and the country people of the west and north-west, fought for the king. After a long struggle Parliament was victorious, mainly through the skill of its military leader, OLIVER CROMWELL. The king was taken prisoner. In 1649 he was brought to trial, found guilty of treason, and beheaded in front of his own London palace of Whitehall. England then became a republic with Cromwell as its head.

EXERCISES

1. Make a list of the strong rulers of the sixteenth century and the countries over which they ruled.
2. What was the Petition of Right? What did it demand?
3. How did King Charles I try to get money? What was the result?

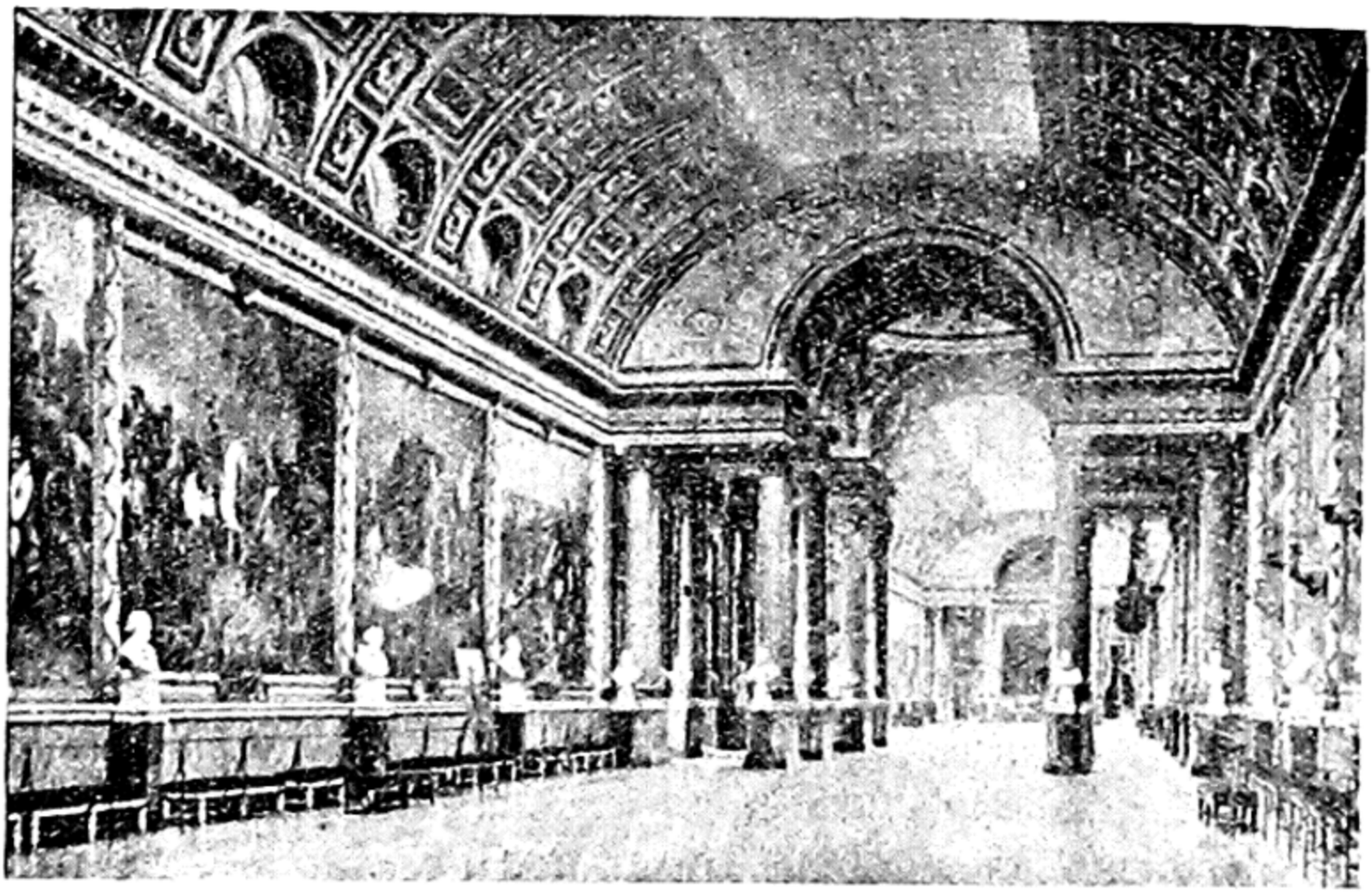
LESSON 11 : 'THE GRAND MONARCH'

[Key-Question 21 : *What was the aim of Louis XIV?*]

§21. There is a famous saying that 'Power corrupts: absolute power corrupts absolutely'. This means that when a man has power to do whatever he pleases, without fear of being criticized or checked by anyone, there is danger of his using that power to do things for his own pleasure without stopping to think whether they may be bad for other people. The more power he has, and the less check there is on him, the greater is the danger of his going wrong. This has almost always proved to be true. In the whole history of the world, there are very few examples of men with absolute power being able to use that power only for good.

In 1643 a king came to the throne of France who reigned longer than any other king in European history. He was LOUIS XIV. He reigned in France at the time when Aurangzeb was emperor of India, but he came to the throne 12 years before Aurangzeb and died in 1715, eight years after Aurangzeb. Thus he was on the throne for 72 years. Louis

is famous not only for the length of his reign but for its outward splendour. His aim was to make France the most



A GALLERY IN LOUIS XIV'S PALACE AT VERSAILLES

powerful and the most admired nation in the world, and his own surroundings the most magnificent. He was an efficient and capable ruler in his own way. But in thinking of *France* he was not thinking of the *people* of France, but of himself as *king* of France. It was Louis XIV who said: 'I am the State'. Like James I and Charles I of England, he really believed that, because he had been born a king, he had the right to do whatever he pleased with his country, his people, and everything they possessed. To make himself the most powerful king in war, Louis gathered a huge army and had it very well trained under skilful generals. Then he sent it out to conquer neighbouring countries. To make himself the most magnificent king in Europe he built great palaces

and filled them with the costliest furniture; he dressed in the costliest materials and made all his courtiers do the same. He succeeded, indeed, in making himself famous in this way, for he was known all over Europe as THE GRAND MONARCH or 'The Sun King'. Most of the kings who were ruling at this time began to copy French dress and manners, and to build palaces in imitation of the great palace of Versailles built by Louis. That palace is now a museum.

[Key-Question 22: *How did Louis try to carry out his plans and what was the result?*]

§22. The wars and the magnificence of the long reign of Louis XIV cost an enormous amount of money. Louis did not summon the French Parliament to ask them to grant him the money. He took it just as he pleased with the help of his finance minister, Colbert. To bring in more money for the king's use, Colbert started State industries for the manufacture of silk goods, linen, lace and glass, and he also encouraged French trade and colonization in Canada, in Louisiana (named after Louis XIV), in North West Africa, and in India. We shall read about the results of this in Lesson 15.

Louis was a busy and energetic ruler, but he insisted upon keeping all power in his own hands. Everything was under the king's control; his people were not free even to choose their own religion. Under a previous king it had been proclaimed that in certain parts of France where many of the people had become Protestants, there should be freedom of religion. But Louis changed this. He tried to force all his people to become Catholics again: he turned out Protestants from all government services and even from schools and hospitals, and punished them severely. This

caused large numbers of French 'Protestants to leave France altogether, and to settle in Holland and in England or, like the Pilgrim Fathers, to go to America and make new homes there where they could have freedom of religion. These were mostly sincere and hard-working lower-middle-class people, and their departure was a real loss to their motherland.

It was, however, Louis' desire to make France bigger by conquering the neighbouring countries that brought the greatest disasters on his people. For about 50 of the 72 years of his reign, Louis was engaged in warfare. First he conquered Flanders (the south-west part of what is now Belgium); then he attacked Holland and other countries on the northern boundaries of France. But Holland was at this time ruled by William of Orange, whom we have mentioned in Lessons 9 and 10. William was a clever soldier and a clever man. He persuaded nearly all the Protestant kings of Europe, and several of the Catholic kings who did not like Louis, to join together to defeat the French king. This was the beginning of the plan or policy called 'the balance of power' which has been followed among the nations of Europe, in one shape or other, even down to the present day. 'The balance of power' means that no single nation in Europe shall be allowed to become so powerful that it can control all the others, and, to prevent this, if any nation becomes too powerful, the others combine against it. Thus, to prevent Louis from making France all powerful in Europe, the other rulers of European nations united against him. Four wars were fought one after another and, in 1713, only two years before his death, Louis was obliged to admit complete defeat and to give up, under the *Treaty of Utrecht,* almost everything he had conquered. In the next 100 years, as we shall see, two more wars were fought to keep the balance of power against France: and again, after

another 100 years, there was a similar war to keep the balance of power against Germany.

EXERCISES

1. How was 'constitutional monarchy' established in the British Isles ?
2. What were the aims of Louis XIV and how far did he succeed in them?
3. What is meant by 'the balance of power'?

4

Democracy Develops

LESSON 12 : PARLIAMENT CROWNS ITS KING

[Key Question 23 : *How was Charles II brought back as king and what happened to James II ?*]

§23. The part of England's history which we studied in Lesson 10 is important to us because the struggle between King Charles I and his Parliament was a struggle for the peoples's rights. After the victory of Parliament, no one in England—not even England's kings—ever dared again to question the rights laid down in THE GREAT CHARTER and the Petition of Right. It was the first time a Parliament had judged, dethroned, and killed a king because he would not rule according to the laws made by the people's representatives.

The English republic lasted only 11 years, until Cromwell's death. Parliament then decided to have a king again, but only one who would rule according to the law. It actually invited the son of Charles I to come back from exile and to reign as Charles II. He accepted, and was wise enough to do nothing against the wishes of Parliament because, as he said he was determined 'not to go on his travels again'. He was a lazy, crafty, but witty man, and when he died it was said that this ought to be written on his tombstone :—

Here lies our sovereign lord, the king,
Whose word no man relied on.

He never said a foolish thing,
And never did a wise one.

But the next King, James II, was different. He was the brother of Charles II, and he made up his mind to carry out the ideas of his father, Charles I. He tried to do so, but Parliament decided to act quickly. It secretly offered the throne of England to William of Orange (great - grandson of William the Silent, see p. 40, footnote), the ruler of Holland who had married Mary, the daughter of James II. The offer was made on condition that William would agree to the terms of a BILL OF RIGHTS. William accepted and came to London. James was taken by surprise and was unable to raise an army for himself. He was allowed to escape to France, unharmed, and William and Mary were jointly crowned as rulers of England. But though they were king and queen, it was really Parliament which now had the power. This was made clear in the Bill of Rights in which all the important items of THE GREAT CHARTER and the Petition of Right were repeated in addition to some others. For example, the king could not suspend any law without Parliament's consent; no one could be punished for sending a petition to the king;



WAX EFFIGIES OF WILLIAM AND MARY

no armed forces could be raised or kept without Parliament's consent; cruel punishments could not be inflicted; freedom of speech must be allowed; elections must be free, and Parliament must be summoned frequently and must be free to pass laws on any matter. Thus, you see, Parliament made quite certain that most of the power would remain in its own hands. The King would rule, but he could no longer rule as he pleased. He soon found that when he appointed his ministers he could not choose those whom Parliament did not like.

[Key-Question 24 : *What did Great Britain gain through the bloodless revolution of 1688-9?*]

§24. This great victory of Parliament is rightly called the English 'Revolution'. It was a bloodless revolution, but it completed the victory which Parliament had won in the Civil War. The rights of the people for which many had fought at the time of THE GREAT CHARTER in 1215, in the time of the first elected Parliament in 1265, and in the Civil War of 1642-9, were made safe by this revolution of 1688-9.

Let us remember, however, that Parliament did not represent all the people of England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales (these four countries were now under one king : Ireland had been conquered by Cromwell, Scotland had been joined when James I came to the throne, and Wales much earlier). Parliament still consisted mostly of representatives of the nobles, the leaders of the Church, the landowners, the merchants, and some members of the learned professions. The masses of the people—farmers, artisans, small traders, and all women—were quite unrepresented, and most of them were quite uneducated, too. Another 150 years had to pass before Parliament became more representative of the whole nation. We shall see that many stirring events happened

before that time came. But even though Parliament only represented the more powerful, more educated, and wealthier people, parliamentary government made the rights of the people very much safer than they could ever have been under an absolute monarchy. The king was now obliged to rule according to the constitution, that is, the laws of the country which Parliament alone could make. This is what we call 'constitutional monarchy'.

We shall study in Lesson 18 what happened in France where no Parliament had met for nearly 200 years.

LESSON 13 : CABINET GOVERNMENT

[Key-Question 25 : *How did William III of Great Britain get money for the war against Louis XIV?*]

§25. When William of Orange became King William III of Great Britain at the invitation of the British Parliament, he naturally relied on the help of Parliament and did not act against its wishes. Moreover, he had to depend on Parliament for money to fight the wars against Louis XIV, about which we have learned in Lesson 11. In this can be seen clearly the difference between the way of getting money in a country under a 'constitutional monarchy' and the way of getting it in a country ruled by an autocratic king. Louis, as we have seen, forced his people to pay for his wars and his luxuries in all sorts of ways, many of them extremely unjust, and none of them approved by the French Parliament. The English Parliament, which agreed with William in wishing to defend the Protestant countries of Europe against the Catholic Louis, willingly granted him money from taxes. When that was not enough for such a long and costly war, Parliament *borrowed* money for him. This is, in fact, how the Bank of England came to be started in

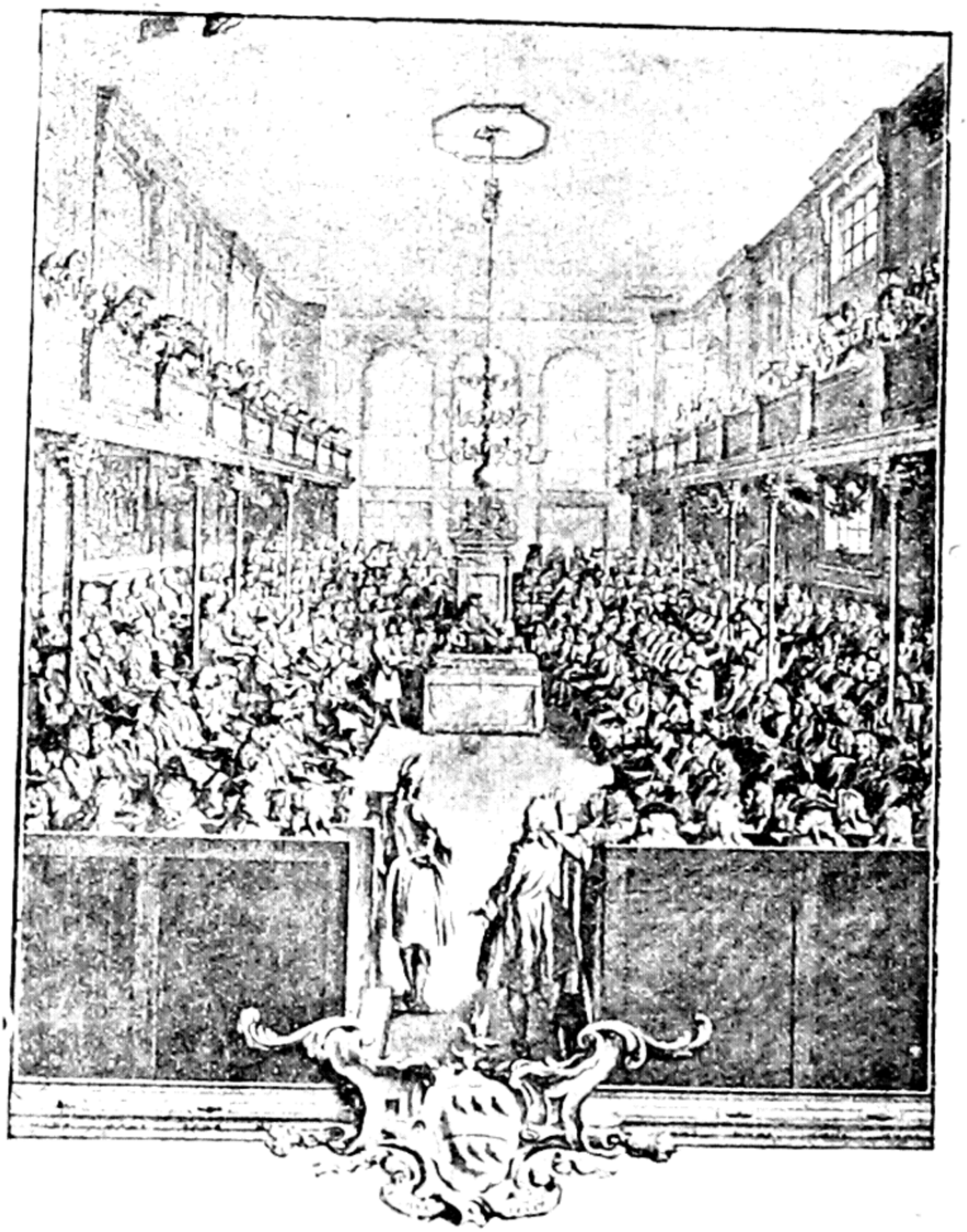
1694. It was at first an association of wealthy merchants to lend money to the government of the king, on receiving a promise from Parliament that the money would be repaid, with interest, at a later date.

[Key-Question 26 : *How did the ' Cabinet ' system arise? Why did it become necessary to have a 'Prime Minister' ?*]

§26. But William's dependence on Parliament produced some other important developments in Parliamentary government. This was the introduction of what is known as the 'Cabinet' system. In earlier times the king had always had a Council of Ministers which usually included all his chief advisers and those to whom he had given important duties. This Council was known as the 'Privy Council' (*privy* means *secret*). Its members were chosen by the king. But when Parliament increased in power, the king's ministers had to have the support of Parliament. Before Parliament would grant money, the king's chief minister had to tell the House of Commons why money was needed and how much the king's government required. He could not address the House unless he was a Member of Parliament, and he was not likely to succeed in getting money unless he was also a member of the party that had the majority of votes in the House. For this reason, it became the custom for the king to appoint, as his chief minister, the leader of that party in Parliament which had the largest number of members, i.e. the 'majority party'. This chief minister then advised the king to appoint certain other members as heads of the chief government departments, or 'Secretaries of State' as they are called, for Home Affairs, for Scottish Affairs, Foreign Affairs, War, the Admiralty (Navy), and so on These members came to be

known as the 'Cabinet Council' because they met the king in a small private room (cabinet) of the palace. The king himself presided over their meetings. At that time there was no 'Prime Minister', but the king's chief minister was called 'First Lord of the Treasury' because the control of the government's money was regarded as the greatest responsibility. The king's 'Cabinet Council' thus became the body which really held the power of governing the country, and it depended on Parliament for the continuance of its power, for it could carry on the government only so long as it had the support of a majority of the Members of Parliament. That is to say, the Cabinet had, in reality, become 'responsible' to Parliament, though its name, 'His Majesty's Government', meant that it was responsible to the king. If the Cabinet did things of which the majority in Parliament did not approve, it lost the support of Parliament, and the king had to choose new ministers. If the party to which the Cabinet members belonged was defeated when a new Parliament was elected (every three years, later changed to seven years, and later to four), the king again had to choose as chief minister the leader of the new majority party.

Another important change took place in England soon after KING GEORGE I came to the throne in 1714. Here again Parliament exercised its supreme power by deciding that the British throne should not go to the exiled son of James II, who was a Roman Catholic, but to a more distant relative, George, who was a Protestant and already king of the small German State of Hanover. George of Hanover did not know a word of English when he arrived in London, so he could not preside at the meetings of his Cabinet. That is how the custom arose for the chief minister to preside instead of the king, and he became known as the 'Prime



THE HOUSE OF COMMONS IN 1742

Minister' (*prime* means *first*). The first Prime Minister was Sir Robert Walpole. Thus, during the reigns of the first George and his son, George II, the practice of government by a Cabinet of ministers responsible to Parliament became still more firmly established.

But we must not forget that, though Parliament was by this time more representative of the middle classes (the educated townsfolk, the big merchants, and the wealthier landowners of the country) than it had been before the Civil War, it was still quite unrepresentative of the great majority of the people—the working classes, small farmers, labourers, artisans, soldiers, sailors, and all womenfolk. Britain had established parliamentary government, but not yet parliamentary democracy.

EXERCISES

1. How did William III get money for the wars against Louis XIV ?
2. What is 'Cabinet government' and how did it arise ?
3. Why did a Prime Minister become necessary ? Who was the first English Prime Minister ?
4. Was the government of England a 'democracy' at this time ?

LESSON 14 : THE GROWTH OF THE MIDDLE CLASSES

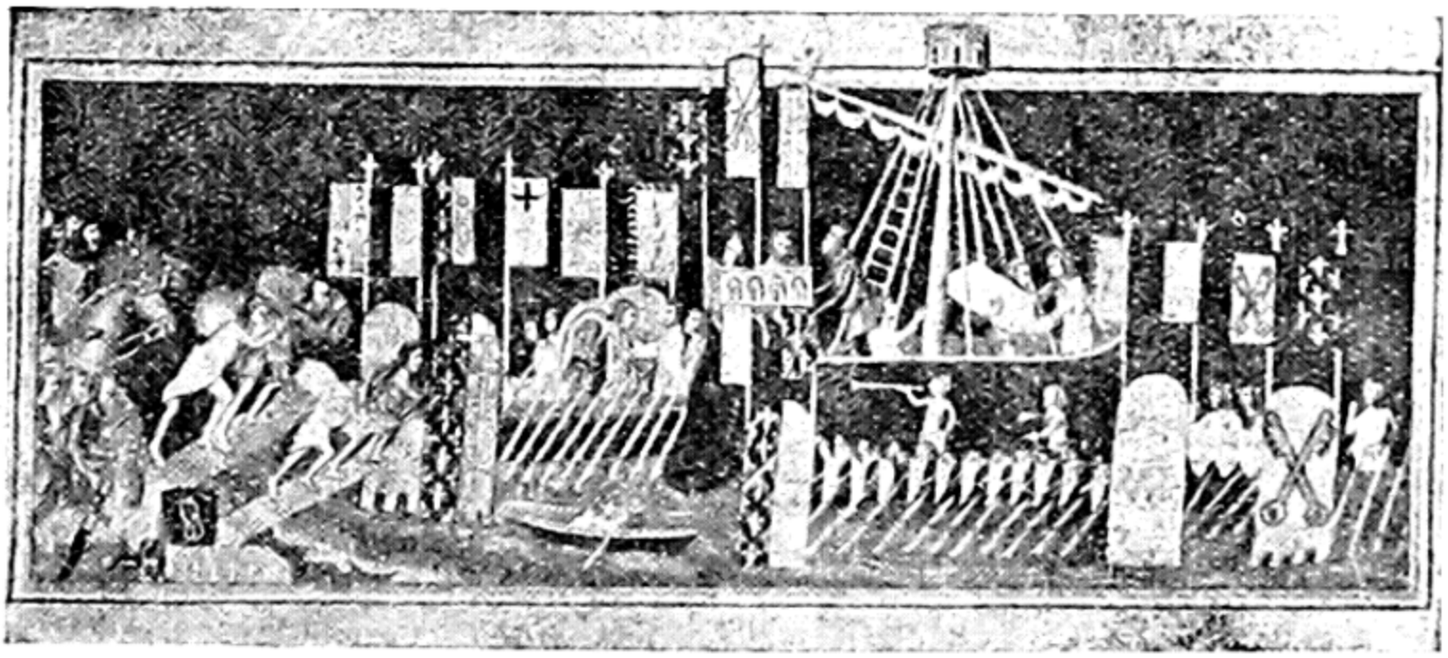
[Key-Question 27 : *How did the Crusades help to make the people of western Europe more civilized ?*]

§27. The increased power of the 'middle classes' in the British Parliament was the natural result of their increasing importance in the affairs of Britain in every way. Just as there had taken place a balance of power between nations in Europe, so was there a balance of power between the various classes of the people of each nation. In ancient times, the greatest power was probably that of the priests who could frighten even kings into submission. In the Dark Ages and for some time after, the Feudal system gave the

greatest power to noblemen and petty chiefs, each with his band of armed men, who would take and hold whatever they could. Then came the Middle Ages when the strongest of the rival chiefs gained power and kept it in their own hands, ruling as absolute monarchs. But, though these monarchs may often have been tyrannical, they at least did succeed in bringing longer and more widespread peace to their countries. Wars between these big rival kings, with armies of only a few thousand men with a few hundred nobles as officers on each side, were destructive of each other and of the fields or towns where the battles were fought; the people in other parts of the country, however, went on with their usual work and were not seriously affected. This sort of relative peace brought about prosperity: men could grow and make more than they needed for their own use, and they became eager to sell their surplus produce and to buy new things.

In one way the wars of the Middle Ages actually helped to increase trade. Soon after the year A.D. 1000 the city of *Jerusalem*, a place sacred to the Christians because Christ died there, was captured by the Seljuk Turks, who were Muslims. During the next 200 years the Christians of Europe joined together in no less than seven attempts to win it back. These attempts, or expeditions, were called 'Crusades'. They did not succeed in reconquering Jerusalem, but they brought great benefit to Europe in unexpected ways. In the first place, the thousands of European noblemen and their soldiers who took part in the Crusades learned many things from their travels across Europe and from their stay in the Middle East which had become one of the most civilized parts of the world under the rule of the great Arab Caliphas. We have mentioned some of those things in Lesson 6. These

men returned to their simple homes with new ideas, new desires for better ways of living, better houses, better clothes, better food. This helped to increase industry and trade, to



CRUSADERS SETTING OUT FOR THE HOLY LAND

encourage the growth of schools, and to make people more civilized.

[Key-Question 28 : *How did the Free Cities of the Middle Ages get their power?*]

§28. The Crusades helped in another way, too. Wars cost money, and the kings and noblemen who took part in the Crusades needed much money to equip their armies. They dared not risk making their people angry by forcing money from them and then leaving their homes during the long years of war in far-away countries. Instead, they borrowed the money, promising to repay it when they came back from the war. More frequently, however, the merchants, trades-people, and townsfolk preferred to lend their money in return for certain *rights*, rather than rely on the promises of the noblemen who might never return from the wars. It was in this way that the 'Free Cities'

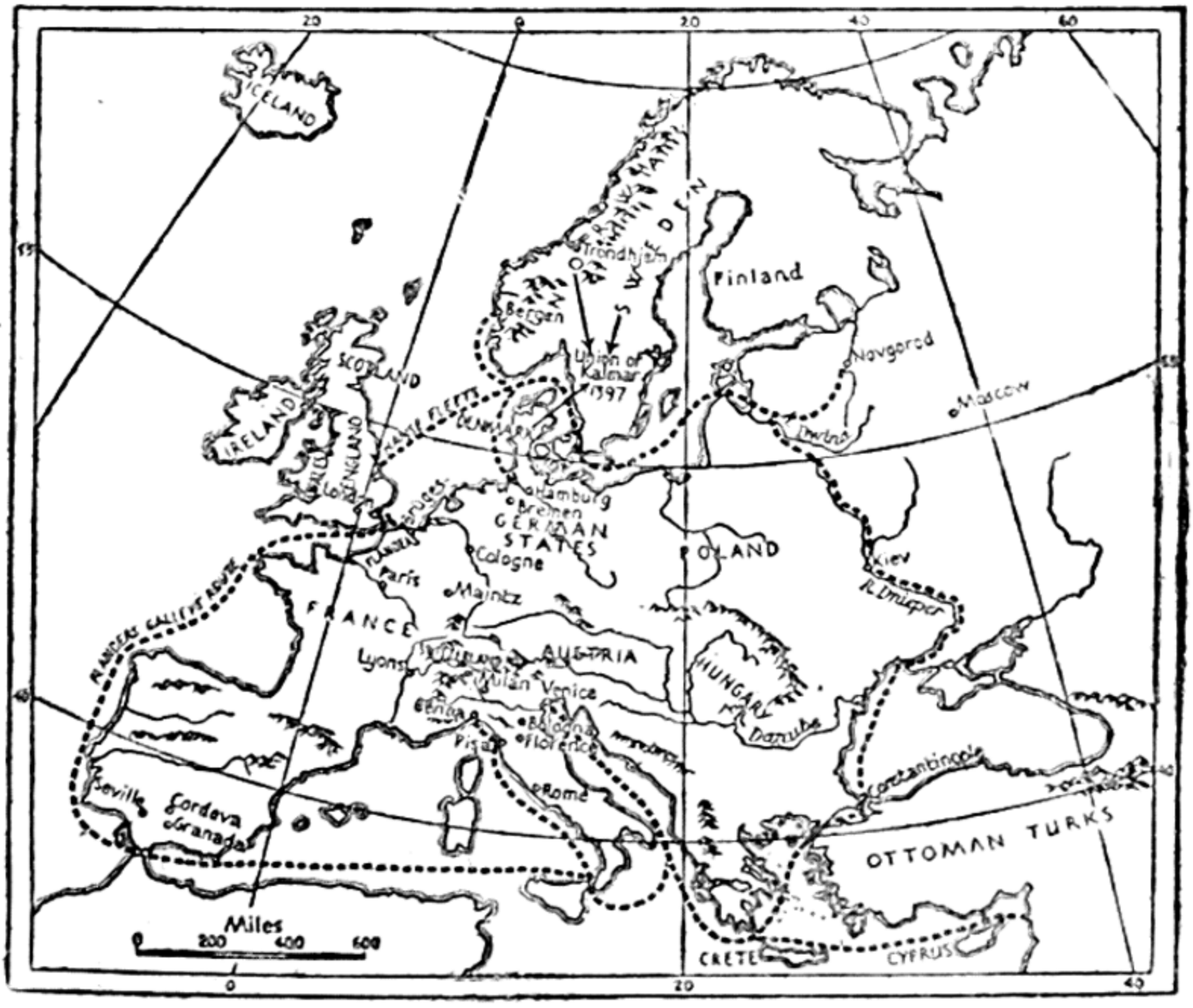
of medieval Europe grew. Instead of remaining the servants of the feudal lords, the people of such cities obtained from them a Charter, or written promise, that in return for certain sums of money, the cities should be free from the payment of certain taxes or dues, and that they should enjoy the right to govern their cities themselves, or by their own representatives.



VENICE—A 'FREE CITY'

From cities of this sort in England, such as London, Norwich, and Coventry, came representatives as members of those early Parliaments at the time of Simon de Montfort in the thirteenth century. Citizens from these Free Cities helped their rulers to prevent invasion in times of national danger, as we have seen when the Spanish Armada threatened England in the sixteenth century. These citizens helped their Parliament against their king when their rights

were threatened during the Civil War, and they set up Parliamentary government in 1649. They restored the monarchy in 1660, and offered the throne of England to William of Orange in 1689 and to George of Hanover in 1714.



MAP SHOWING HANSA TOWNS

Free Cities had grown up in other parts of Europe at the same time, when the balance of power passed from the aristocracy to the middle or merchant classes. France, Germany, Holland, Denmark, and countries on the Baltic Sea all had their free cities such as Bremen, Hamburg, Lubeck, Cologne, Danzig, Gottingen and Novgorod (cities of

the Hansa, the Union of Merchants). The great Mediterranean cities, Venice and Genoa, and other big ports were strong enough actually to go to war against kings who tried to interfere with them. People from these cities left their motherland, from 1620 onwards, to settle in America to retain their freedom of rights and religion; they were the people who made the bold adventurers, discoverers, sailors, and traders across the oceans, and who founded the East India Companies of Europe.

In France and Spain, however, where the kings had retained nearly all power in their own hands, the Free Cities did not grow as strong as in other countries, though they could also defy their kings.

EXERCISES

1. How did the Crusades help to give power to the middle classes?
2. How did the 'Free Cities' come into existence?
3. Find out more about Venice and its history and write something about it.
4. Look up 'Hanseatic League' in an encyclopedia, and write a few lines about the 'Hansa'.

5

The Revolt of the Colonists

LESSON 15 : COLONIAL RIVALRY

[Key-Question 29 : *What were the causes of rivalry between the French and the British in America and India?*]

§29. In Lesson 8 we read about the Pilgrim Fathers who left their mother-country to make a 'New England' in America where they could be free. In Lesson 11 we heard about the colonists and traders sent out by the French King Louis, to Canada and Louisiana. A brief account of how each of these colonies came into existence has been given in Section 24 of *The Struggle of Modern Man.*

Look at the map and you will notice that the British colonies are all along the east coast, while the French colonies are on the banks of the two great rivers,



MAP OF THE AMERICAN COLONIES

Mississippi and St Lawrence, and around the Great Lakes. Look at the map again, and you will see why the two nations, British and French, presently began to fight. The British colonies grew quickly: many people came from the

British Isles and other countries of Europe to make their homes in America. What had been little villages on the coast became important ports and more and more people went inland to make farms and build new towns. The people of New England began to want more space to live in. But when they crossed the mountains which are all along the eastern coast (see map), they came to the wide valley of the river Ohio—and there were the French.

The French colonists had more space than they could use. But they did not wish to let the British occupy the country which they had already claimed for France. They built strong forts all along the rivers St Lawrence and Ohio, and threatened to drive out the British if they came any nearer.

Just at the same time the French and British became rivals in India too. After the death of Aurangzeb, the Mogul power had grown weaker and weaker, and there was much disorder. It became difficult for the French and British East India Companies to carry on their trade without the protection of some armed forces. At first they only strengthened their forts and kept soldiers to defend them. Then they began to help the local princes to establish their independence from the emperor of Delhi.

In the beginning they only helped them to train Indian soldiers for their armies. Then European soldiers were brought in. Presently, in various parts of the country, rival Indian princes were being helped by the rival Europeans. This private war between the French East India Company and the British East India Company went on for some time, just as the struggle in America went on between French and British traders and colonists, till at last it ended in a real war between the two nations, with allies helping on both

sides. This war is known as the *Seven Years' War* (1756-63), and it is one of the most important in history.

[Key-Question 30 : *How did Pitt win the Seven Years' War for the British ?*]

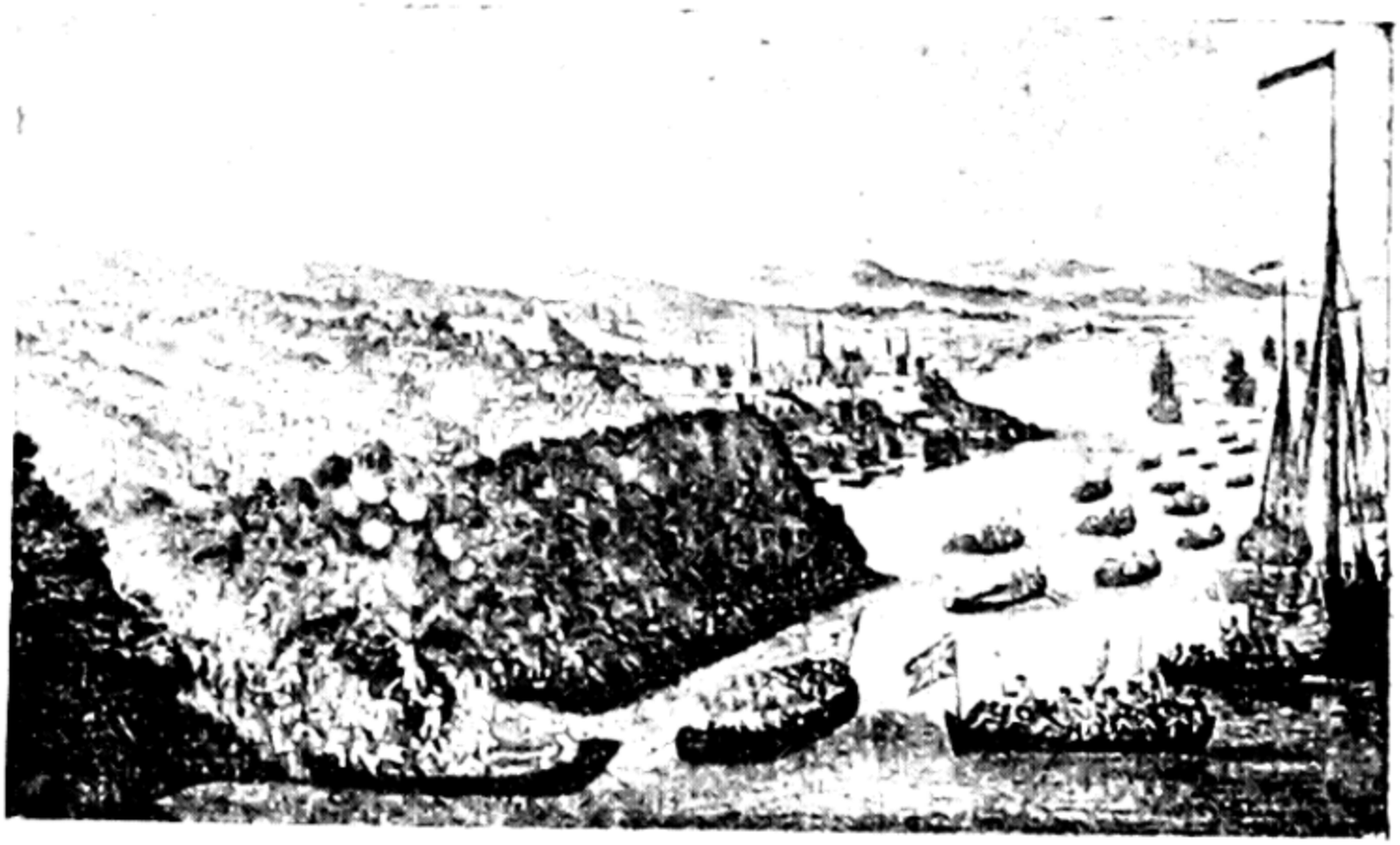
§30. England at this time had a great man in Parliament whose name was WILLIAM PITT. Pitt was only 27 years old when he was first elected as a member of the House of Commons. He soon became famous for his magnificent speeches. He declared that the traders and colonists were much more important to the growth of British power than most people believed. After some time Pitt became a Minister, and when he was 48 years old he became Prime Minister. It was really he who laid the foundations of the British Empire. He saw that the struggle between England and France was sure to come, and he made up his mind that England should win. This is what he did.



WILLIAM PITT THE ELDER

First, he chose young and able leaders for the British navy, and for the British armies in America and India. He sent them out to fight the French with the best equipment that could be got. It was Pitt who chose ROBERT CLIVE to lead the British in India. Clive was only 27 years old but he soon showed that he was a military genius. The commander chosen by Pitt for the British forces in North America was JAMES WOLFE, a young officer only 31 years old.

The second thing Pitt did was to keep the French busy in Europe, so that they could not send much help to their



WOLFE CAPTURING QUEBEC

armies overseas. This he did by supporting the chief European enemy of France, KING FREDERICK II OF PRUSSIA. Frederick was one of the greatest military geniuses of that time, and he had trained the Prussian army until it was the most powerful in Europe. With the help of this army he planned to make Prussia the greatest nation in Europe. In order to do that he had to defeat the French who were his strongest rivals. Pitt sent some British soldiers to help Frederick, but the chief help he gave was in money which Frederick needed very badly to pay his men and to feed and equip them properly.

Frederick had a difficult time at first, for Russia, Sweden, and Austria were on France's side against him. But gradually the discipline of his well-trained army brought him victory. Meanwhile, the British Navy drove the French from the seas,

and British armies under Wolfe in Canada and under Clive in India defeated the French on land. Peace was made in 1763. Under the *Treaty of Paris* the French had to give up all claims to lands in North America and India. Prussia became one of the leading nations of Europe, and the British Empire was born. This was mostly due to the work of William Pitt (who was by that time Earl of Chatham) and to Frederick II, King of Prussia, known from that time onwards as Frederick the Great.

EXERCISES

1. Make a list of the European colonies in North America and say who founded each of them and why.
2. How did the French and British East India Companies increase their power?
3. Read more about Clive and Wolfe and write a very short account of the victories they won against the French.
4. Read about Frederick the Great and how he made Prussia a powerful country. Write a short note on what he did.

LESSON 16: THE NEW ENGLANDERS FIGHT FOR INDEPENDENCE

[Key-Question 31: *What actions of the British Government made the American colonists angry?*]

§31. Up to this time, those nations which had colonies in distant lands had thought of them simply as places from where the mother-country could draw wealth; either from gold and silver mines—as in the case of Spanish colonies in Mexico and South America—or from trade in valuable things such as silk and cotton, tobacco and spices, as in the case of Portuguese, Dutch and British colonies in the East. This was the opinion of all the kings and governments of the time, and it is not surprising that it was also the opinion of King George III of England who was not a clever man. He thought it would be right to make the American colonists help to pay for the costly war that had just ended, because

an important part of that war had been fought to defend those colonists against the French. King George's reasons were perhaps good ones, but unfortunately he tried to *force* the colonists to obey. But the New Englanders were mostly the descendants of people who had left Europe in the seventeenth century because they wanted to be free from the tyranny of kings who tried to interfere with their religion. At the risk of their lives, their forefathers had crossed the Atlantic Ocean in small ships, with their wives and children and whatever few tools and belongings they could manage to take with them. With great difficulty they had cut down forests in that vast new land of America, tilled the ground, built themselves houses and defended themselves against the wild Red Men. After having undergone such hardships they did not see why they should do what the British government ordered them.

King George was not the right sort of man to understand these people. If he had appealed to their reason and sense of fairness, he might have got them to help to pay for the war by which they had benefited. Pitt saw that, but he died before he could make the king act sensibly. With the help of ministers who were as short-sighted as himself, the king decided to force the colonists to pay taxes. When they refused, he sent his soldiers to punish them. The result was war.

The American colonists were not at all ready to fight against the army of a great nation like the British, who had just defeated the French in three continents. King George thought his soldiers would easily defeat the colonists, and at first it was so. But the colonists were quite determined not to yield. They were led by some capable officers who had actually been fighting on the side of the British a few

years before, in the war against the French in America. The greatest of these officers was GEORGE WASHINGTON.

George Washington was born in Virginia in 1732. He was a farmer and a farmer's son. Until he was more than forty years old, he spent his time almost entirely in looking after his estates. He gained some military experience in fighting for the British against the French. When the Seven Year's War had been won, Washington went back to his farming. Nothing would have pleased him better than to spend the remainder of his life developing a bigger colony towards the river Mississippi. But the British Government did not like this because it would have meant fighting against the Red Indians who lived in those parts. The British had had enough of fighting in the war against the French. So laws were passed forbidding the colonists to go beyond the river Ohio. This action of the British Government annoyed the colonists of the southern states. At the same time, the laws ordering the payment of new taxes annoyed those of the north. The colonists of both north and south, therefore, were angry with the government of their motherland. In 1775 fighting broke out.



GEORGE WASHINGTON

LESSON 16

[Key-Question 32 : *How did the American colonists win their independence ?*]

§32. The first thing necessary for the colonists was to appoint a leader who could raise and command an army for them. Washington was the man unanimously chosen.

He did not want to accept this work, for he considered himself unfit to do it. But when he saw that his fellow countrymen had confidence in him, he took up the task with tremendous energy. He refused to accept any salary. At first he had great difficulties, for though the colonists were hardy farmers and foresters, and could shoot, they were not used to military discipline, and had practically no equipment for a war. During the first year and a half, the Americans (as we shall now call them) suffered defeat after defeat at the hands of the more experienced British soldiers, but, in spite of this, they refused to give in. Washington went on training more men, and gathering equipment for them, and in 1777 the tide began to turn.

The colonists were undoubtedly helped because many of the British officers and soldiers were sorry to have to fight against their brave countrymen who had settled in America. But most of all they were helped because the management of the war was no longer in the hands of a capable minister like Pitt. The French saw that this was a fine chance to take *their* revenge on the British, so the French king sent money and soldiers to the Americans to help them. Finally, in 1781, a British army was almost surrrounded by the Americans at a place called Yorktown on the coast of Virginia, and the French navy prevented British ships from coming to their rescue. The whole army had to surrender to the Americans, to avoid starvation. Once again the *control of the sea* proved to be the most vital thing for the

British, and this time it was against them. In 1783 King George III had to admit that the former British colonies of New England were free and independent states. The Canadian colonies had not joined the war, so they remained British, as did the islands of the West Indies.

EXERCISES

1. Why did the New England colonists fight against the Government of their mother-country?
2. Read more about the life of George Washington and write a short account of his work.
3. How were the Americans able to defeat the British government forces?

LESSON 17 : THE U.S.A. AND THE DOMINION OF CANADA

[Key-Question 33 : *What difficulties did the Americans have in deciding what sort of government to set up? What did they decide?*]

§33. The winning of independence by the New Englanders began the life of the United States of America, which has since grown to be one of the largest and most powerful nations of the world. The Fourth of July is the great day of celebration for that nation, because it was on 4 July 1776 that the colonists first declared themselves to be no longer under the British Government.

Their difficulties did not end, however, with the winning of their freedom, for they had had very little experience of self-government. Until the time when the war began, each of the states had managed its own affairs quite separately. They now had to find a way to unite in managing their affairs as a single nation. This was not easy, for each state was jealous of its own freedom and did not want to give up powers to a central government. It took no less than twelve years, from the time when they declared their independence in 1776, for them to agree upon their new constitution.

In 1775 representatives of the states met to decide what should be done. Washington came as representative of his own state, Virginia, and he was elected Chairman. Then it was decided that the states should unite themselves into a *Federation*. That is a form of government in which the federating states (or provinces) continue to manage their own affairs in matters which concern themselves only; but in matters which concern the nation as a whole—such as defence, money, the postal system, telegraphs and railways, foreign trade, treaties and war with foreign countries—they agree to be ruled by a central or 'federal' Government consisting of representatives of all the federating states or provinces.

Most Americans, of course, did not want a king. They decided instead to elect one of their leading men as President for a short period, and to hold fresh elections every four years, so that no one man could ever become powerful for too long a time. The first elected President of the United States of America was George Washington.

[Key-Question 34 : *Why did Canada remain in the British Empire? What sort of government has Canada?*]

§34. Let us now see what happened to Canada at this time. You have learned in §32 that the Canadians did not join in the war for independence. Why not? It was perhaps mainly because the Americans made the same mistake as the British had made: they tried to *force* their will upon the colonists of Canada instead of persuading them. In 1775 an American army invaded Canada, captured Montreal and besieged Quebec. This made the Canadians angry; they refused to yield, and the next year the American army had to turn back. Moreover, there were many people in

the now independent United States who wanted to remain under British rule. These people, about 40,000 in number, left their homes in the U.S.A. and went over to live in Canada. They helped a great deal to persuade the Canadians *not* to join the U.S.A.



THE DOMINION OF CANADA

But Canada had its own special problems to face. Above all, there was the big difficulty that the eastern part of Canada was inhabited almost entirely by French colonists whose language and customs were French, and whose religion was Roman Catholicism; while all the more *westerly* part (that is, the part around the Great Lakes, for no one had yet gone farther west) had been colonized by the British, who were mostly Protestants. Parliament now decided to

separate these completely into two countries, each with its own government. The government of the eastern part, Quebec, was to be at the city of Quebec, and that of Ontario, the western part, at Toronto. This was tried for about 50 years, and then it was decided to join the two parts of Canada again under a single self-governing Parliament at Montreal. But this did not work well either, because the differences between the French and the British colonists made it difficult for them to form a united government. So, in 1867 a new method of joining the two parts was tried—an experiment in democratic government which is of great importance to us, for it was a federation of two people whose languages, religions and customs were quite different.

Canada became a 'dominion', made up of federated self-governing provinces. Each province or state of the Federation had its own government, to control all affairs concerning that province alone, but the central 'Federal' or 'Dominion' government has the power to control affairs which concern more than one of the provinces. The advantages of this system soon became clear. The French Canadians, in their province of Quebec, were quite free to follow their own religion and customs, and to carry on all their business in their own language. Quebec is even now a French city, though not under the rule of France. On the other hand in Ontario, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, the British Canadians were equally free. The 'Dominion Government', too, was and is entirely free to manage all the affairs of Canada as a whole, without any interference from the British Parliament.

There is no doubt that it was this invention of 'Dominion Status' alone that prevented Canada from breaking its ties with Britain, as the American colonies had done. Later, as we shall see, other colonies such as Australia, New Zealand,

Newfoundland, and South Africa, obtained 'Dominion Status', and two of these (Australia and South Africa) followed the example of Canada and the U.S.A. in forming their new governments on the plan of a Federation.

EXERCISES

1. What difficulties did the American States have when they became independent? How did they overcome those difficulties?
2. Why did Canada not join the U. S. A?
3. What difficulties did Canada have in governing itself? How were they overcome?
4. What is meant by a 'Federation'? What is meant by 'Dominion Status'?

6

The French Revolution and Empire

LESSON 18 : THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

[Key-Question 35 : *What were the causes of the French Revolution?*]

§35. In Lesson 11 we read about Louis XIV of France, and how he ruled as an 'absolute monarch'. The wars which Louis fought throughout his reign, the palaces he built, and the other luxuries with which he surrounded himself and his court, cost a great deal of money. Louis did not ask the French Parliament to give him money for these. He ordered taxes to be collected whenever he needed money. The French Parliament never met at all ; Louis governed the country himself with the help of ministers chosen by him. The next king, Louis XV, was a child of only five years when he succeeded to the throne of his great-grandfather, and for nearly 30 years the government was carried on by regents, relatives of the king, acting in his name. Then again France went to war, this time even more disastrously, for it was the Seven Year's War about which we read in Lesson 15. To pay for all these wars, royal luxuries and losses, more and more money

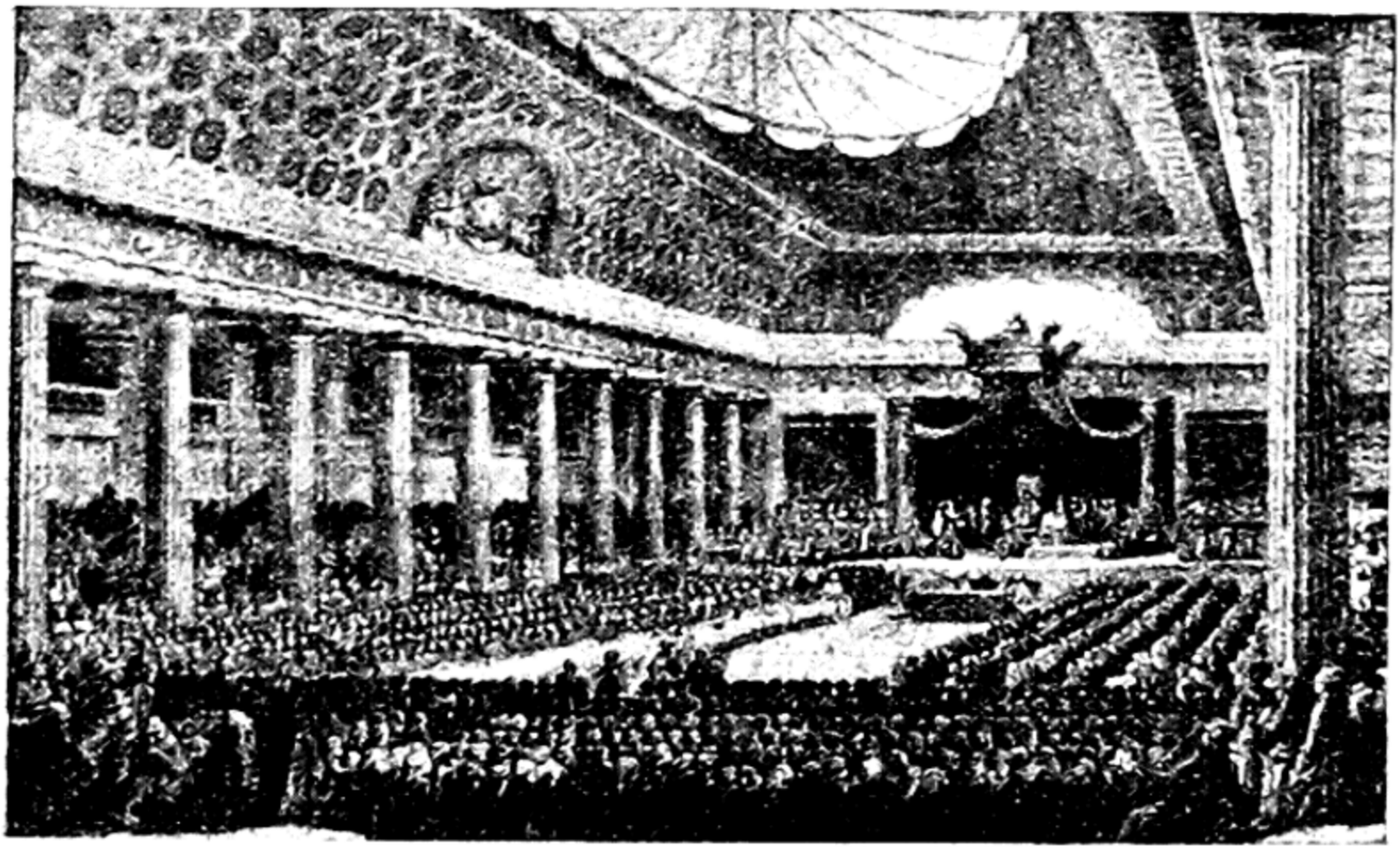
was needed. It was obtained in very unjust ways. The nobles, the clergy, and other rich and powerful people were not taxed at all. The taxes had to be paid almost entirely by the people of the middle and poor classes, who could least afford to pay. Naturally, this caused great discontent. In 1774 another Louis, Louis XVI, grandson of Louis XV, came to the throne. In 1775 the War of American Independence began and, as you learned in Lesson 16, the French Government sent help to the Americans. The Frenchmen who went to fight on the side of the colonists against the British came back to France with new ideas of the value of freedom. They found no freedom in France, their own motherland. They felt it impossible to bear the tyranny of the nobles and priests. New ideas of freedom were also spread among the people by the works of two great French writers, ROUSSEAU and VOLTAIRE, and by THOMAS PAINE, an Englishman who had fought for the Americans against his own people. A great struggle for freedom in France was bound to follow.



VOLTAIRE

The French Revolution began in 1789. At first there was agitation but very little violence. The people demanded that the king should summon the French Parliament (called the 'States-General') which had not met for nearly 200 years because France had been ruled all that time by absolute monarchs. The Assembly of the States-General decided to change the laws, and finally drew up a *Declaration of the Rights of Man.* This was a most important document; it was used as a model later on in many other parts of the world.

It laid down that the nobles and rich men must no longer be free from taxes, and the poor must have equal rights with the rich in cases of arrest or disputes. But though the king agreed to these changes he did not really mean to carry them out. He



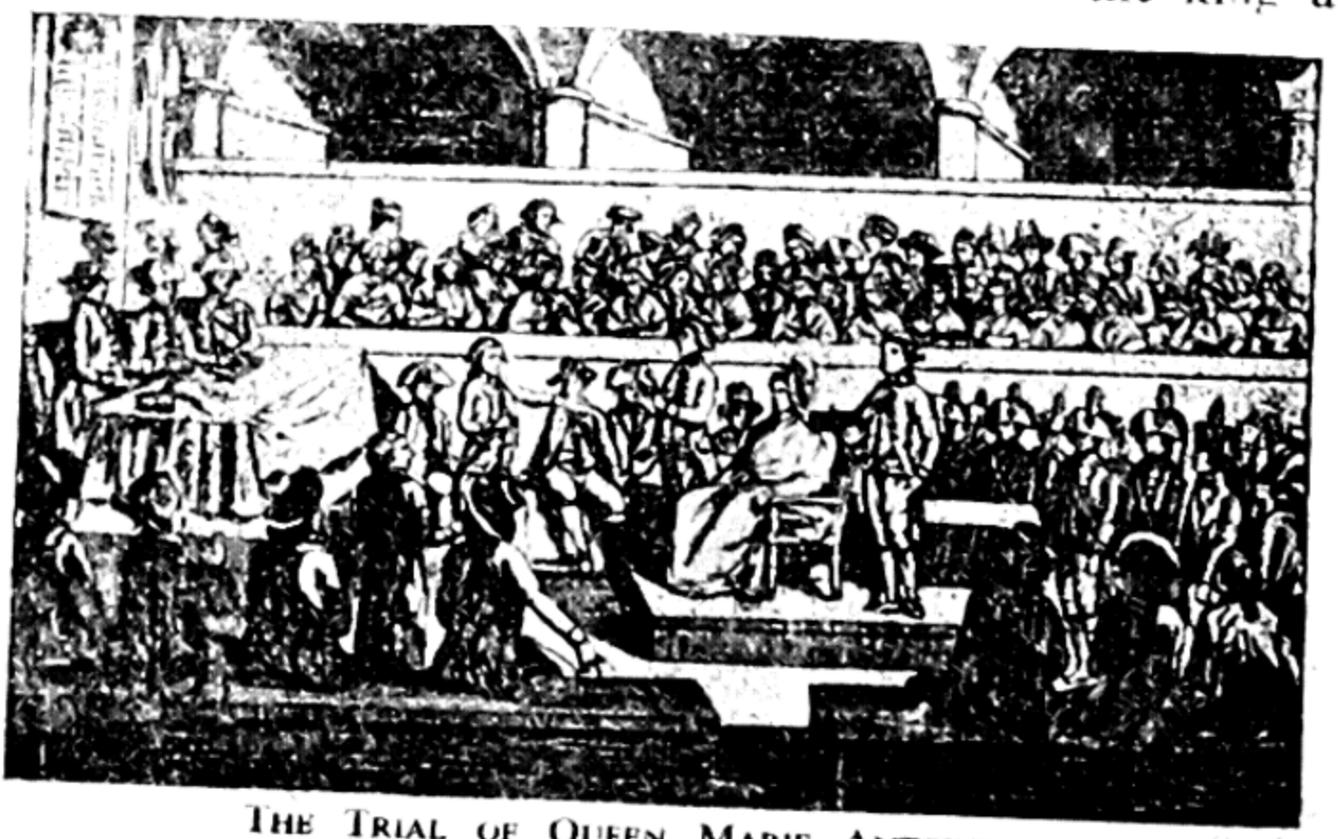
A MEETING OF THE STATES-GENERAL

secretly tried to gather an army to restore his power and to crush the people again. When the people of Paris heard of this they marched to Versailles—the great palace, some miles outside Paris which Louis XIV had built—and forced the king to come back to Paris, where they kept him a prisoner in his palace there.

[Key-Question 36: *What were the results of the French Revolution?*]

§36. In 1791, the king tried to escape in order to join an army which his noblemen-friends had gathered to help him. He was caught near the boundary of Germany. The people were now very angry with the king. They knew he could not be

trusted to keep his promises and to rule constitutionally (that is, according to the constitution or laws of the nation laid down by Parliament). Many of the most powerful leaders of the people said that it would be best to kill the king and



THE TRIAL OF QUEEN MARIE ANTOINETTE

all his family, so that they could cause no more trouble. In 1793 the king was guillotined (that is, his head was cut off by a machine called the 'guillotine'[1]), and in the next two years thousands of nobles, including the queen and other members of the royal family, were killed in the same manner. This period is called the 'Reign of Terror'. People were killed simply because they were of noble family. The chief leader of the Terror was a man named Robespierre[2]. Presently Robespierre began to get rid of his own rivals in the government in the same way. Other leaders were afraid that their turn would come soon, so they joined together to get rid of Robespierre, and sent him to the guillotine, too. After his death, the Terror ended and a constitutional government

[1] Pronounced 'ghee-yo-teen' [2] Pronounced 'robes-pee-air'

on republican lines (that is, with an elected President, as in the United States, instead of a king) was set up.

This revolution was no doubt terribly violent and caused the death of many innocent people. But it did quickly some good things for the French people. First, it got rid of the many unfair advantages that the nobles, rich men and priests had enjoyed. The same laws were laid down for rich and poor alike, and men were more justly taxed. Secondly, the great estates of the nobles, on which the poor had been forced to work, often almost like slaves, were broken up and sold cheaply to people of the middle and lower classes. Thirdly, trade was improved and all occupations and posts of dignity became open to those who were fit for them, whatever might be their family or position.

Most of the French people certainly felt that the Revolution brought them the chance of a new and better life. This was what made them support the Revolutionary Government, in spite of all its violence and bloodshed. But the kings of neighbouring countries were angry with the French for killing a king. Prussia and Austria wanted to punish them, and they sent armies to invade France. But the French defended their new Republic bravely. Although they had hardly finished their own revolution, they got together armies which not only checked the German and Austrian invaders, but which for some time actually marched into the invaders' countries, spreading the ideas of '*Liberty*, *Equality* and *Fraternity*'—the motto of the French Revolution.

EXERCISES

1. What was the cause of the French Revolution?
2. Read *A Tale of Two Cities* by Charles Dickens, an exciting story of the French Revolution.
3. What were the good results of the French Revolution? What harm did it do?
4. What was in the 'Declaration of the Rights of Man'?

LESSON 19 : THE EMPEROR NAPOLEON

[Key-Question 37 : *How did Napoleon rise to power ?*]

837. And now there rose to power an extraordinary man who, for a time, ruled France as Emperor, and conquered most of Europe, too. He was NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.



NAPOLEON

We usually read that Napoleon Bonaparte was one of the greatest despots the world has ever seen. It therefore seems strange that he should have become ruler of France just after the great Revolution in which the French people killed their king because he was a despot. How can we explain this ?

Although Napoleon was a despot, he could never have come to power without the French Revolution. He was not a nobleman or rich man's son, and under the absolute monarchy of France, people who were not nobles or rich men had very little chance of rising to high positions.

Napoleon was not really even a Frenchman. He was Italian by birth, born in 1769 in the island of Corsica, in the Mediterranean. When he was young his chief idea was to set

Corsica free from French rule. He went to France to study military science and there he had an unhappy time. In the French military schools he attended, his fellow-pupils were mostly sons of nobles and rich men who looked down upon him. He, therefore, kept to himself as much as possible and was very unpopular; but he had a brilliant brain and in course of time he qualified as an officer and joined the artillery. When the Revolution began, he supported it, and soon became prominent through his skill in military affairs. He was so outstanding in this that he was actually made commander-in-chief of one of the French armies when he was only 27 years old. That was at the time when the French were being attacked by the Austrians and Germans. Napoleon was given command of the army which was opposing the forces of the Austrian monarch. Within a year Napoleon succeeded in driving the Austrians out of eastern France, and himself crossed the Alps and invaded northern Italy (which was then under Austria).

By this time the British Government had also begun to oppose the French Revolutionary Government. Napoleon persuaded the French Government that the best way to injure the British was to interrupt their trade-route to India and seize their empire in the East. Napoleon therefore took his army across the Mediterranean Sea to Egypt, which he conquered. Then he began to march towards Palestine. If he had been able to go on, perhaps he might have conquered even greater territories than that earlier military genius, Alexander the Great. But he could not go on, because he received news from France that things were going badly at home. The new French Government was incompetent; the Austrians had won back most of the country conquered by Napoleon, and the French people were getting discontented. In great haste to get

home, Napoleon left his army in Egypt, where it was soon defeated by the British when he was not there to lead it. The people of France welcomed him because they felt he was a strong man who would set things in order. They voted that instead of having a republican government, the government



NAPOLEON'S EMPIRE

should be in the hands of three men, called *Consuls*, of whom Napoleon was to be the chief, or *First Consul*. Napoleon soon showed what sort of man he was when he had power in his hands. First he drove the Austrians out of Italy again, and made himself King of Italy. Then he captured Vienna, the capital of Austria, and defeated the combined armies of the Austrian emperor and the Russian emperor at a tremendous battle at Austerlitz. Then he went on and defeated the Prus-

sians. In 1802 the French made him First Consul for life and in 1804 they gave him the title of Emperor.

[Key-Question 38 : *Which countries did Napoleon conquer and which did he fail to conquer ?*]

§38. Not content with being an Emperor himself, he now aimed at giving the title of King to his relatives and the commanders of his armies. He forced the Dutch to make one of



NAPOLEON CUTS OFF EUROPE FOR HIMSELF, WHILE ENGLAND HOLDS THE SEAS

his brothers King of Holland ; another brother was made King of Naples ; another was made King of Westphalia (a new kingdom made up of part of Germany). In 1808 the brother

who had been made King of Naples was made King of Spain, and the throne of Naples was given to the commander of one of the French armies. The commander of another French army was made King of Sweden. In 1810 Napoleon himself married the daughter of the Austrian Emperor. By 1810 almost all Europe was ruled by Napoleon and his nominees, except the British Isles in the extreme west, and Russia and Turkey in the extreme east. Napoleon did his best to conquer the British. He might have succeeded if the could have gained control of the sea. Then he could have stopped their trade, captured their colonies and even invaded England. He kept a huge, splendidly trained army all ready for this purpose at Boulogne on the French side of the English Channel, with boats to take them across as soon as the way was clear. Luckily for the British, their navy blocked the way, and though Napoleon tried to starve them by forcing all the nations of Europe to stop trading with Great Britain, he did not



THE DEATH OF NELSON

succeed because the British navy kept the sea-ways open. It was during this time that the famous naval battle of *Trafalgar* was fought between the British and the French, with Nelson as the admiral of the British navy. Nelson was killed in the battle, but the French navy was completely defeated, and the British kept the control of the seas.

EXERCISES

1. How did Napoleon rise to power and what did he do?
2. What was Napoleon's plan for crushing the British?
3. How did control of the sea affect Napoleon's success?
4. What parts of Europe were under Napoleon's control in 1810?

LESSON 20: NAPOLEON'S DOWNFALL

[Key-Question 39: *How was Napoleon's downfall brought about?*]

§39. Napoleon's attempt to stop the other nations of Europe from trading with the British really began his downfall. Though he had not actually conquered Russia, Napoleon forced the Tsar (the Russian emperor) to be his ally, after he had defeated the Russian armies. But the Tsar refused to obey Napoleon's order not to trade with the British. Napoleon was furious and determined to punish the Tsar by invading and conquering his country. In 1812 he marched into Russia with an army of more than half a million splendidly trained and experienced soldiers. But those men marched to their doom. They were defeated not by the



THE RETREAT FROM MOSCOW

Russian armies, but by the Russian climate. They defeated the Russian army; they actually entered Moscow, the Russian capital. But they found the city in flames and not a scrap of food to eat. Everywhere, the Russians had destroyed the crops and the food supplies before they retreated. The French were starving. Then the winter came. Winter in Russia is much more extreme than in France; it is terribly cold. There was nothing to be done except to try to march back to France, two thousand miles or more—as far as from Kashmir to Cape Comorin. Not only had the French no food, but the Russians now began to attack them from behind. The French died in thousands. Out of that army of more than five lakhs only twenty thousand returned home.

Even then Napoleon's extraordinary career was not ended. The French still admired him for his military skill and for the victories and the glory he had won for them, though at such terrible cost. He raised another army, consisting mostly of old men and boys. But the other nations of Europe had grown weary of his rule. The British landed an army in Spain with the help of their navy, and helped the Spaniards to rebel. The Russians and the Prussians and the Austrians combined against him. He was at last defeated in Germany at the great *Battle of the Nations* and was driven back to France. The Allies then offered him terms: he was to remain Emperor of France, but his boundaries were to be the Rhine, the Alps and the Pyrenees, with the additional lands of Belgium and Savoy. He wanted more, and then the Allies lost patience and invaded France. Paris was taken, and Napoleon was forced to give up his throne. He was sent to live on the island of Elba, off the coast of Italy, as an exile. A brother of the French king who had been killed in the Revolution was made King of France.

[Key-Question 40: *What did Napoleon do for France?*]

§40. But the French did not like the return of a king of the old kind. When, after less than a year, Napoleon escaped from Elba and promised to rule them constitutionally, the French people believed him and welcomed him. But the allied nations of the rest of Europe feared that Napoleon could never be trusted to rule peacefully, for conquest was in his blood. They combined to oppose him again, and in June 1815 was fought the decisive battle of *Waterloo*. Napoleon was completely defeated, and had to surrender. This time he was exiled to the island of St Helena off the western coast of Africa, where he died in 1821. For some years the French were ruled again by their old kings, though much less despotically than before. Later, another republic was set up without much bloodshed or opposition, and since then France has remained a republic, governed as a 'parliamentary democracy'.

It is as a great military commander that Napoleon is usually remembered, but we must understand that he was really something more. If he had been only a conqueror, he would not have been able to rule France successfully for about fifteen years. He was an extraordinarily capable organizer, and he showed this in other matters besides war. He planned and constructed splendid roads and bridges, not only in Paris but along the Rhine and across the Alps. He did much to make Paris a fine capital city with grand buildings and monuments, some of which commemorate his own victories. Seeing that much confusion occurred because the laws of France were different in different places, he had them codified (that is, made clear and uniform). Those laws, the *Code Napoleon*[1] as they are called, are still used, not only in France but in several other European countries. The results of his work

[1] The *Code Napoleon* is also the basis of the Indian Penal Code.

as a military commander have entirely perished, but his constructive works, his work as an organizer, his roads and his buildings, remain.

EXERCISES

1. What were the chief causes of Napoleon's downfall?
2. Find out more about Napoleon and write a short account of his life and character?
3. What good things did Napoleon accomplish for France and what harm did he do?

7
The Industrial Revolution

LESSON 21 : THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

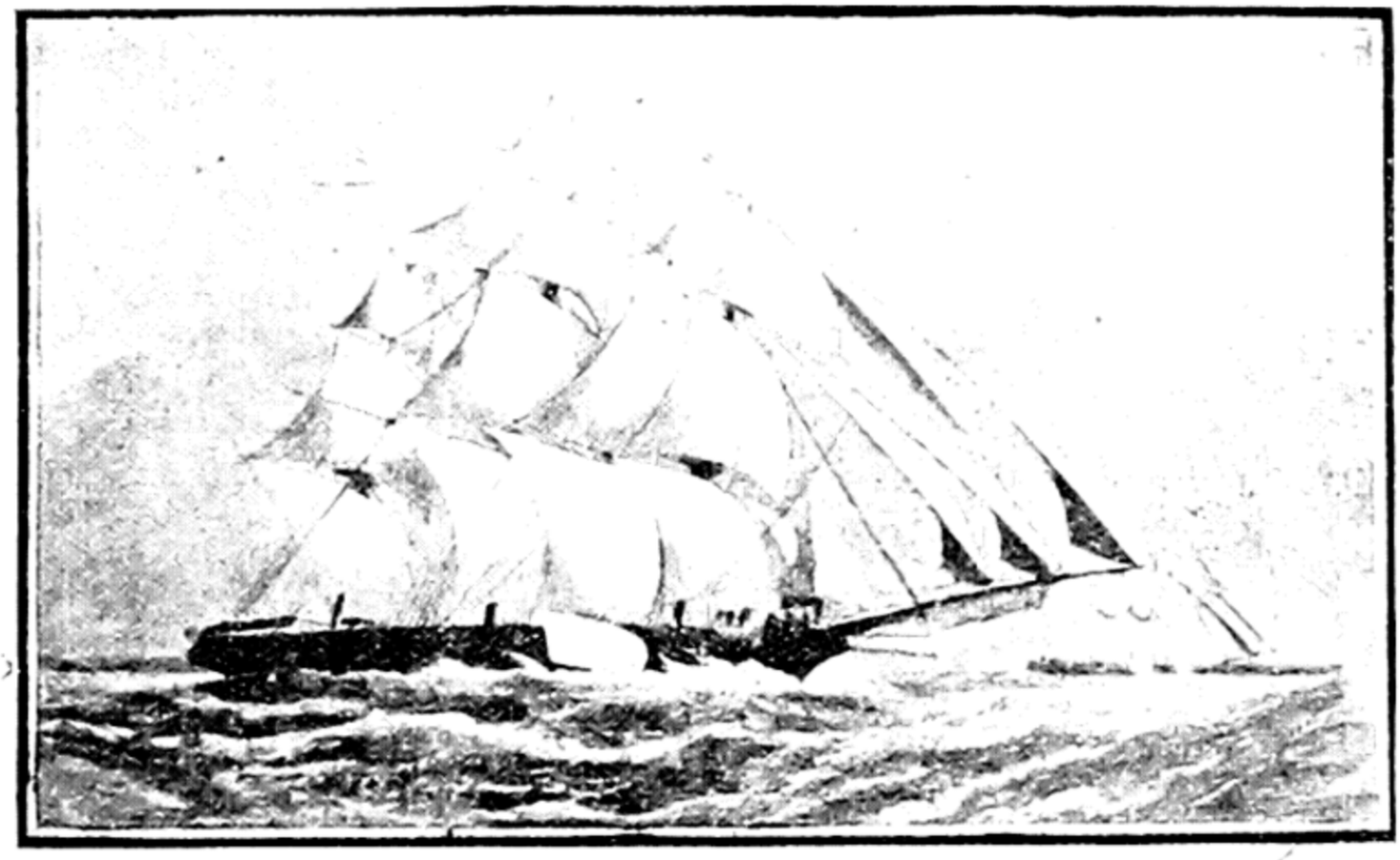
[Key-Question 41 : *Why and how did the British Empire grow?*]

§41. We have seen in previous lessons how the British, the inhabitants of those small islands off the north-west coast of Europe, gradually built up a great overseas empire. Through their control of the sea they were even able to bring about the downfall of the mighty Napoleon. The empire grew more widespread and more powerful after the defeat of Napoleon, so it is worth while pausing here for a moment to see the causes of its growth.

It began and it grew, first of all, because the British islanders were a very adventurous people. They were used to risking their lives in small boats on stormy seas and they enjoyed trying to discover new lands and new things. They are still like that, as is shown by adventures like the attempts to reach the north and the south poles, and to reach the tops of the highest mountains in the world. They were good colonists too : they did not mind leaving their homeland and taking the risk of making a new home in a far-off country.

Secondly, they were keen traders. They did not wait for their Government to arrange things for them, or to be told

to set out on trading or colonizing expeditions. Most of the places which have now become parts of the British Empire were not deliberately conquered by the British *Government*. Britishers visited them as private citizens and traders, first;



SWIFT SHIPS FOR TRADING

then they built trading-stations and settled there. The British Government only took charge later, as in the cases of India, Canada and South Africa.

Thirdly they were keen seamen and built swift ships for trading and for keeping contact with their various colonies all over the world. The ocean, instead of *separating* them from their friends overseas, was the means of *uniting* them. By having a strong navy they were able to defend their empire and to keep rival nations from interfering, however strong they might be (like Napoleon) on the land. Whenever they lost control of the sea, as for a short time during the revolt of the American colonists, we can see how disastrous it was to them.

Lastly, they were inventive, and were determined to find ways to overcome whatever obstacles came in their way. It was a different kind of inventiveness from that of some of the continental peoples. The British generally muddle along in the ways they are accustomed to, as long as they can, for they are a rather conservative people: they do not like to change their ways. Then, when things become really troublesome, they try to find out some way of modifying them through what is called a 'compromise'.[1] This means not destroying the old things completely and making entirely new ones (as the French did in their Revolution, and as the Russians did in 1917), but trying to make small changes here and there so as to suit as many people as possible. This method of compromise has its advantages when things are not very bad, because it causes less disturbance and is less destructive than the revolutionary method of changing things. But perhaps it has its disadvantages, too, in not changing things quickly enough when they have become *very* bad.

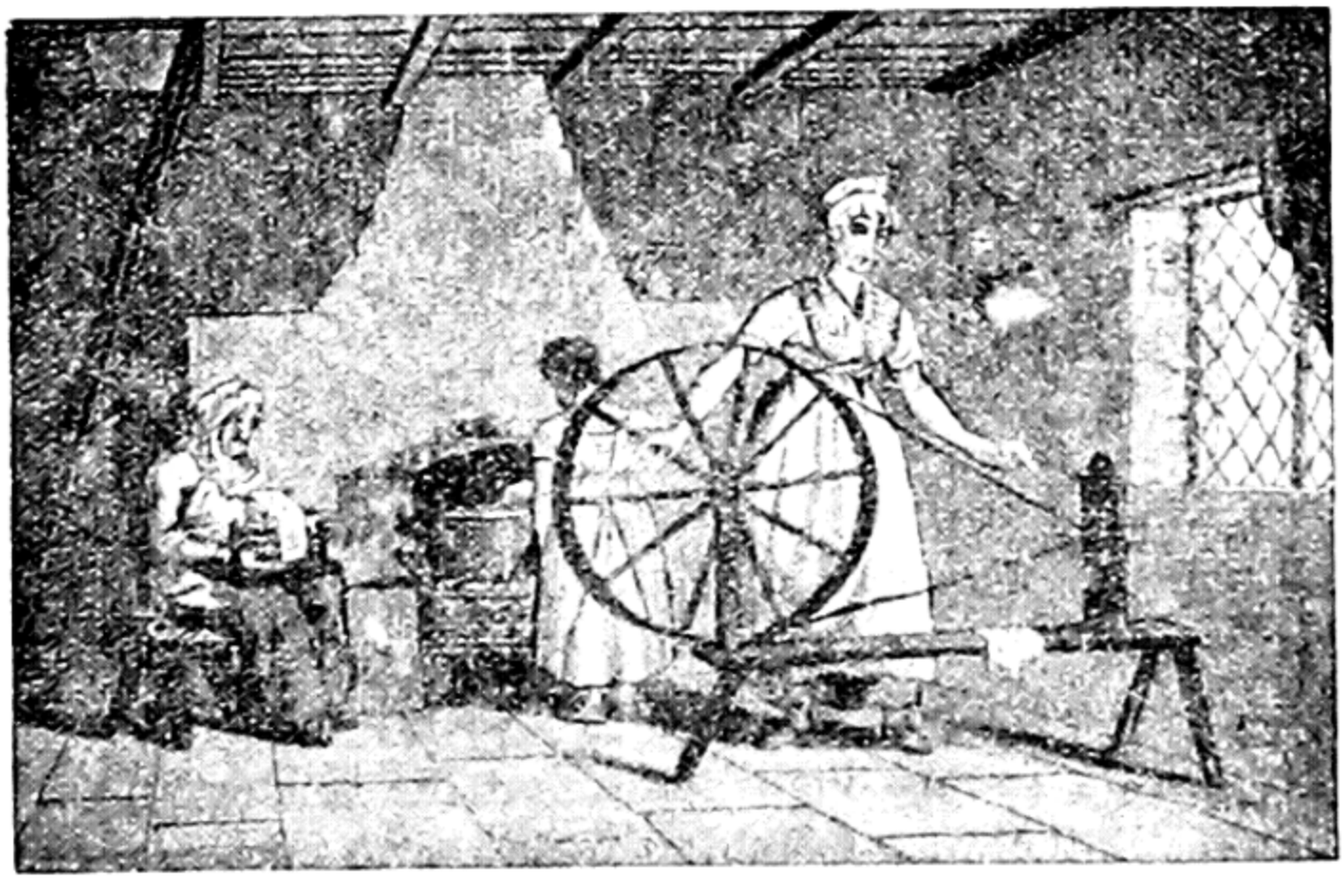
Now we shall see how this inventiveness of the British people helped them to take the lead for a whole century from the time of Napoleon onwards.

[Key-Question 42: *What was 'The Industrial Revolution' and what inventions hastened it?*]

§42. Up to this time all manufactured goods had been made by hand (that is the meaning of the word 'manufacture'), and they were almost always made in small quantities by craftsmen working in their own homes. We call such crafts 'cottage industries'. Every village had its own small group of craftsmen, just as many villages in India still have. Most of the women spun yarn on their simple spinning-wheels or 'charkas'; there were a few families of weavers, a potter, a

[1] Pronounced 'kom-prom-ize'.

blacksmith, a carpenter or two, a leather-worker. Certain districts or towns became famous for making certain things, either because they had specially skilled workers or a good supply of materials, or both. For example, Dacca in Bengal became famous for its muslin or fine cotton cloth, the south

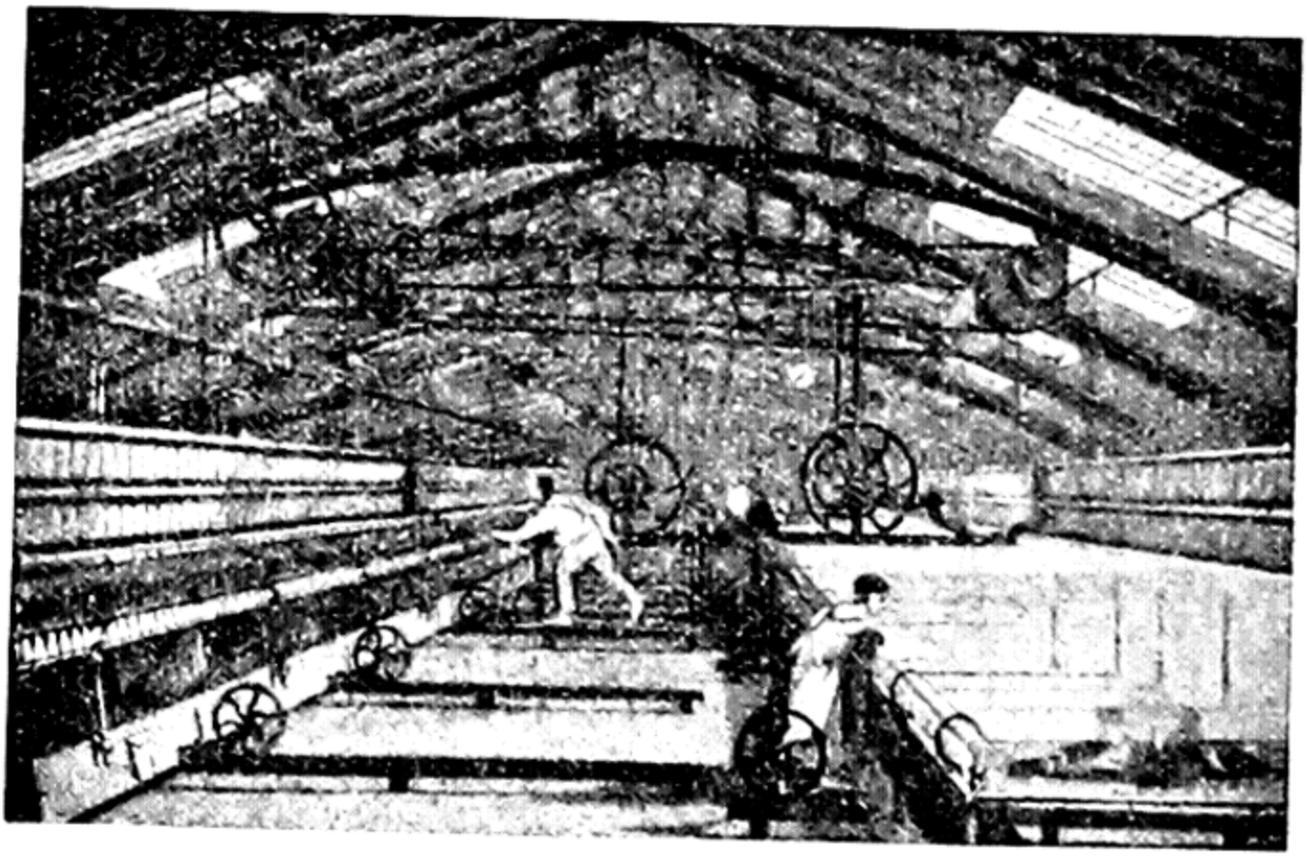


A Cottage Industry

of France for its silk, north England for its woollen cloth, Toledo, in Spain, for its swords and knife-blades. People were willing to pay high prices for these things when they were brought by traders. The makers naturally tried to produce larger quantities as the demand increased and to do this they had to improve the tools they used.

When the British began to colonize North America they found that cotton could be grown very well in the warmer parts of that continent. It was also discovered that the damp climate of the north-west part of England (the county called Lancashire), though much too cold for growing cotton, was

very good for spinning the cotton thread and weaving it into cloth. The cloth could be sold at a good profit because people



AN EARLY COTTON FACTORY

were already paying high prices for the fine cotton cloth brought all the way from India. So the Lancashire people began to make cotton cloth from cotton brought from America. Owing to the increasing demand, men began to try to find a way of making cloth in larger quantities than the hand-spinners and hand-weavers could make it in their cottages. Rich men began to hire the services of weavers, who worked at looms fitted up in rows in big buildings called 'factories'. Instead of each man selling whatever he had made, the weaver was paid a fixed amount as wages, and the factory-owner sold the cloth and made the profit. If the factory-owner could get other weavers to work for smaller wages, or to work longer hours and make more cloth, he could obviously make more profit. Thus the introduction of the factory-system caused

great hardship to the workers in the cottage-industries who had till then made things in their own homes. If they wanted to get work, they had to leave their village-homes and live near the factories. Thus big factory-towns began to spring up, in which hundreds of poor workers had to live crowded together. This was the first stage in the great change which we call *The Industrial Revolution.*

EXERCISES

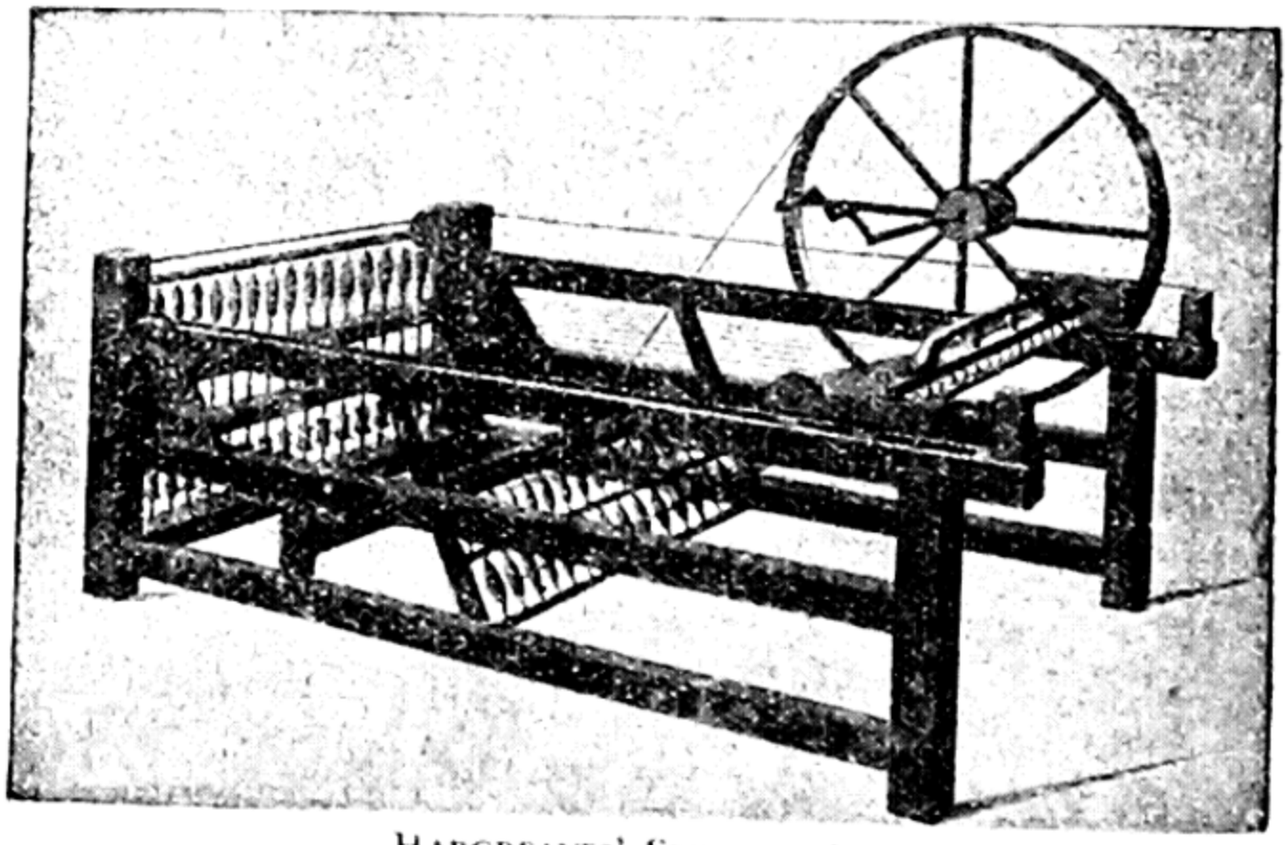
1. Why did the British Empire grow at this time?
2. 'Since the invention of agriculture there has been no change in man's way of living so great as that which has been caused by the invention of machinery.' Write something about this.
3. In what ways did the introduction of machinery do good and harm to people?

LESSON 22 : THE NEW POWER—STEAM

[Key-Question 43 : *What machines enabled cloth to be made more quickly and more cheaply?*]

§43. The next step was the improvement of the machines so that more cloth could be made by fewer workers. In 1766 a Lancashire man named JAMES HARGREAVES invented the 'spinning-jenny', a frame on which a large number of spindles could be worked at the same time by one man turning a handle (see page 94). A few years later this was improved by another Lancashire man, ARKWRIGHT; he found that the threads could be made much stronger if they were passed between rollers which pressed the fibres together. Arkwright built factories where rows of his machines were worked at the same time by the power of a wheel turned by the force of a running stream—a water-wheel. You must remember that water and the force of the wind, used in windmills, were the only kinds of mechanical power available at this time. There were no steam-engines, motors or electrical machinery. Arkwright became a wealthy man through his inventions and his factories.

As a result of a visit to one of Arkwright's factories, another invention was now made by a man named EDMUND CARTWRIGHT. This was the making of a power-loom; that is, a weaving-machine worked by mechanical power, instead



HARGREAVES' SPINNING-JENNY

of by hand. This enabled large quantities of cloth to be made in factories by machines which needed very few men to look after them. This again was good for the factory-owners and bad for the weavers.

[Key-Question 44: *How was the steam-engine invented, and to what uses was it put?*]

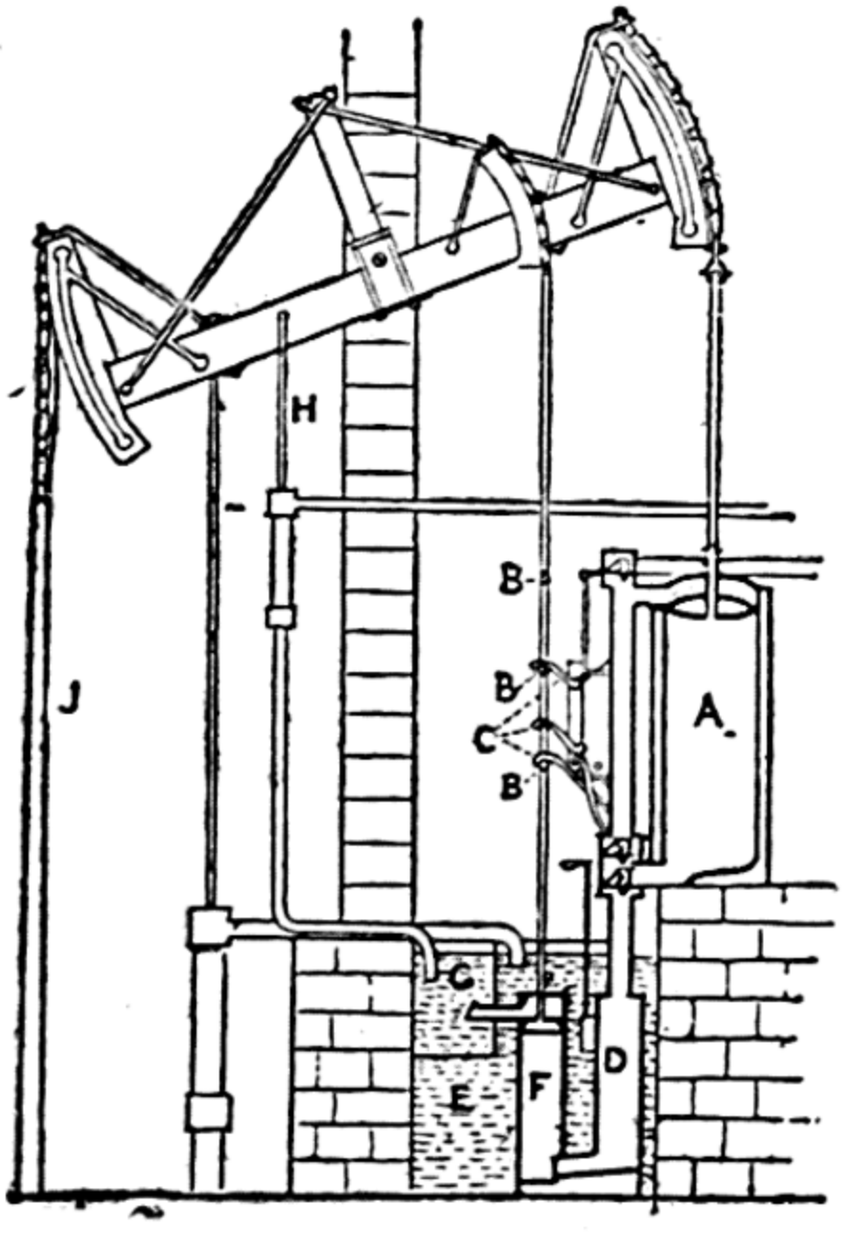
§44. Then came the final step in the direction of making things quickly and in huge quantities. This was the use of the *steam-engine* for working the machines in the factories.

Steam-engines were already being used for pumping water out of coal-mines. It was very troublesome to do this by hand-labour, for, as the mine went deeper and deeper, the pumping became more and more difficult.

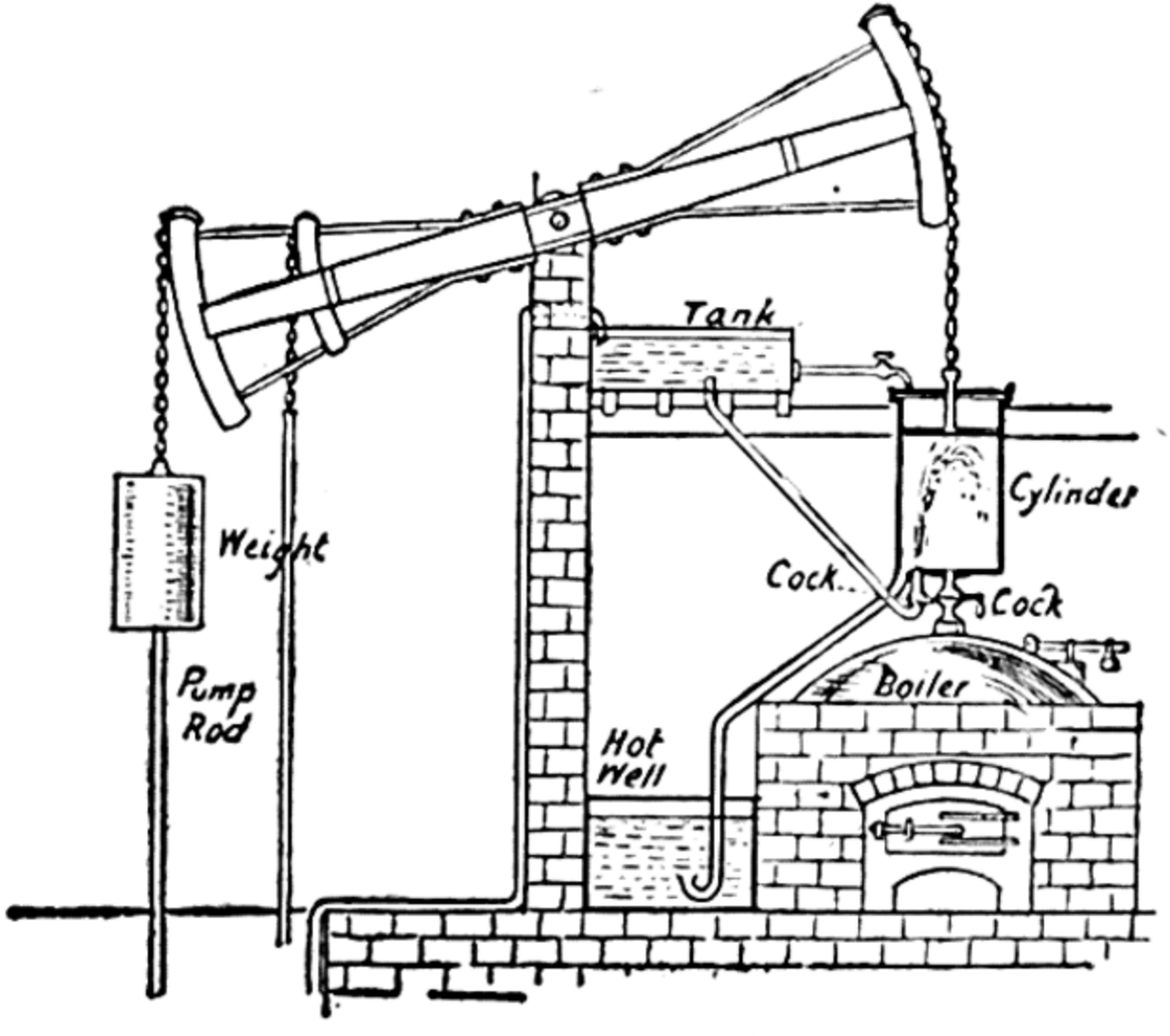
The idea of making a machine move by the power of steam is a very old one. Heron, one of the scholars of Alexandria, made a simple form of steam-engine as long ago as the first century B. C. It consisted of a hollow metal globe, rotating on a horizontal axis. From the globe, metal tubes projected, in the sides of which there were slits. The globe was supported on two upright tubes leading from a metal vessel on a stand, in which water could be heated by placing a fire underneath. When the water boiled, steam passed up the supporting tubes into the globe and, having filled the globe, passed out through the slits, the force of the steam against the air causing the globe to spin round on its axis. This was, so far as we know, the first steam-engine. But the invention remained an interesting toy and it was not put to any practical use. It was not until after the Renaissance that people read about it in the Greek books which had been brought to Italy.

In 1698, an Englishman named THOMAS SAVERY made an engine which could be used for pumping water, and about the same time (in the reign of Louis XIV of France) a French scientist named PAPIN made the first engine worked by a cylinder and piston. It had no separate boiler ; the cylinder itself was heated, and when the water boiled the piston was pushed out by the steam; then the fire was removed and the piston sank down again. Again the water was heated and the piston pushed up, and so on. This, of course, was a very slow business.

The first really effective pumping-engine was made by a Devonshire blacksmith named THOMAS NEWCOMEN. Newcomen had been employed by Savery to make some parts for his pump, and this set Newcomen thinking about how to improve upon it. In 1705 he brought out a new form of pumping-engine. This was soon widely in use for pumping water out of coal-mines.



WATT'S SINGLE-ACTION ENGINE



NEWCOMEN'S ENGINE

A, cylinder; B, tappets governing the inlet of steam by means of the valve levers, C; D, separate condenser; E, cold-water well; F, air pump; G, hot well; H, feed pump; J, main pump rod.

In 1765 it happened that one of the Newcomen engines needed repairing. It was given to JAMES WATT, then an instrument-maker to the University of Glasgow, to put right. Watt saw the chief defect in the engine, and began to think how it could be improved. By 1774 he had made an engine which was much more reliable. It could be used not only for pumping, but also for driving machinery in the factories and for turning a paddle-wheel to move ships through the water. It was eagerly taken up by the factory-owners for operating their spindles and looms, for it could do the work of hundreds of men, without ever needing rest, and was much more powerful than the water-wheel.

EXERCISES

1. Mention the stages in the development of the steam-engine.
2. What inventions helped to make the manufacture of cloth easier?
3. For what were the first steam-engines used?

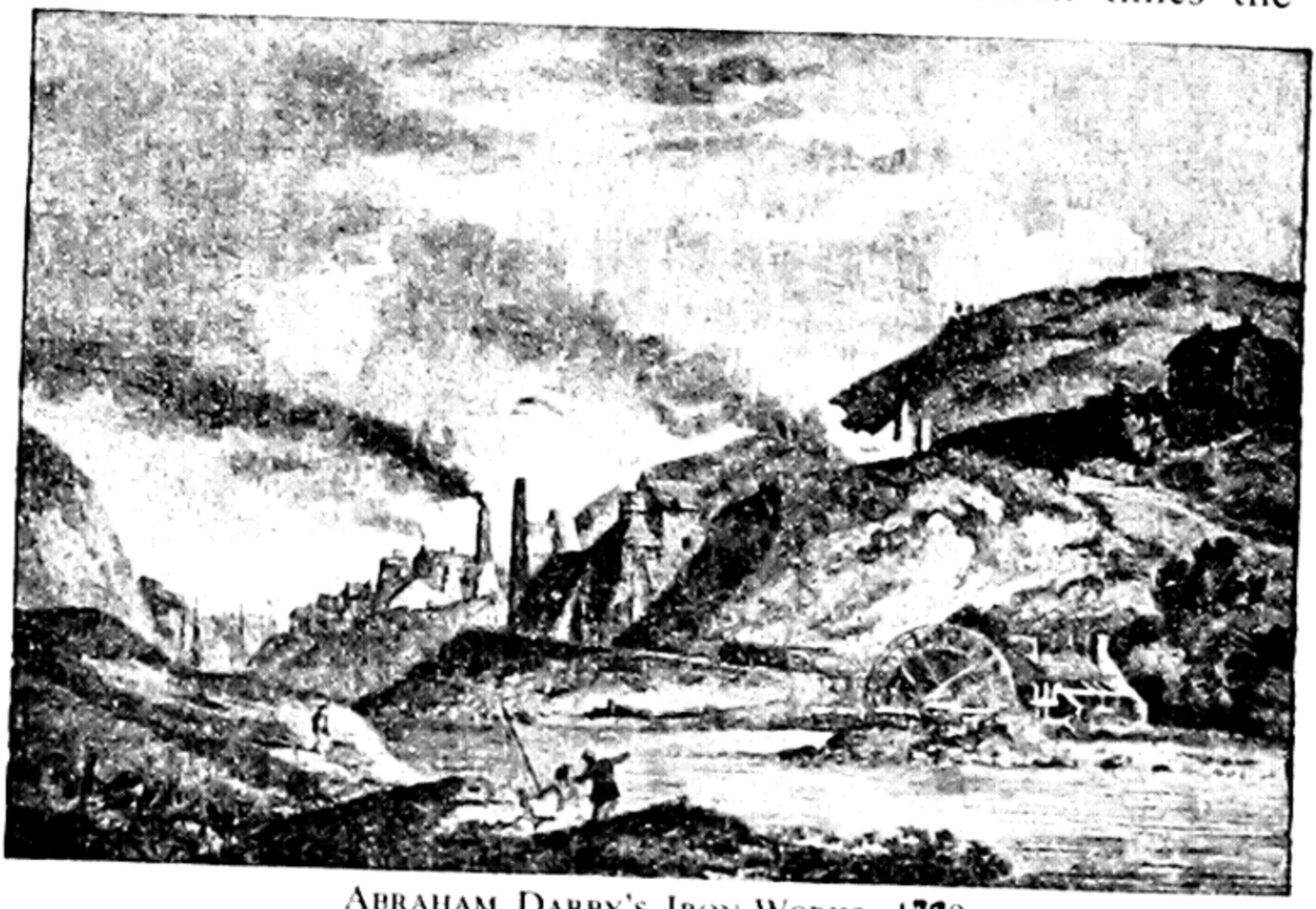
LESSON 23: THE NEW MATERIALS—IRON: THE NEW TRANSPORT

[Key-Question 45: *What discoveries improved the output of iron?*]

§45. The making of machines, and particularly of steam-engines, could never have been successful, however, without the improvements which took place, just at the same time, in the manufacture of the material from which nearly all machines are made—*iron.*

Iron is a metal mixed with stone found in the earth. It has to be melted in order to free it from the stone, and this was done in the olden times (since very early times in India) by heating the iron-stone in a charcoal fire. The charcoal was made to give out more heat by having air blown into it by a 'bellows'. I am sure you have seen the village blacksmith making iron shoes for horses and bullocks in that way. Char-

coal is wood which has been heated so that the parts which give out smoke are burned up, leaving only carbon which gives great heat with no smoke. Wood, of course, comes from forests, and a great deal of it was needed for 'smelting' (melting and purifying metals). So in the olden times the

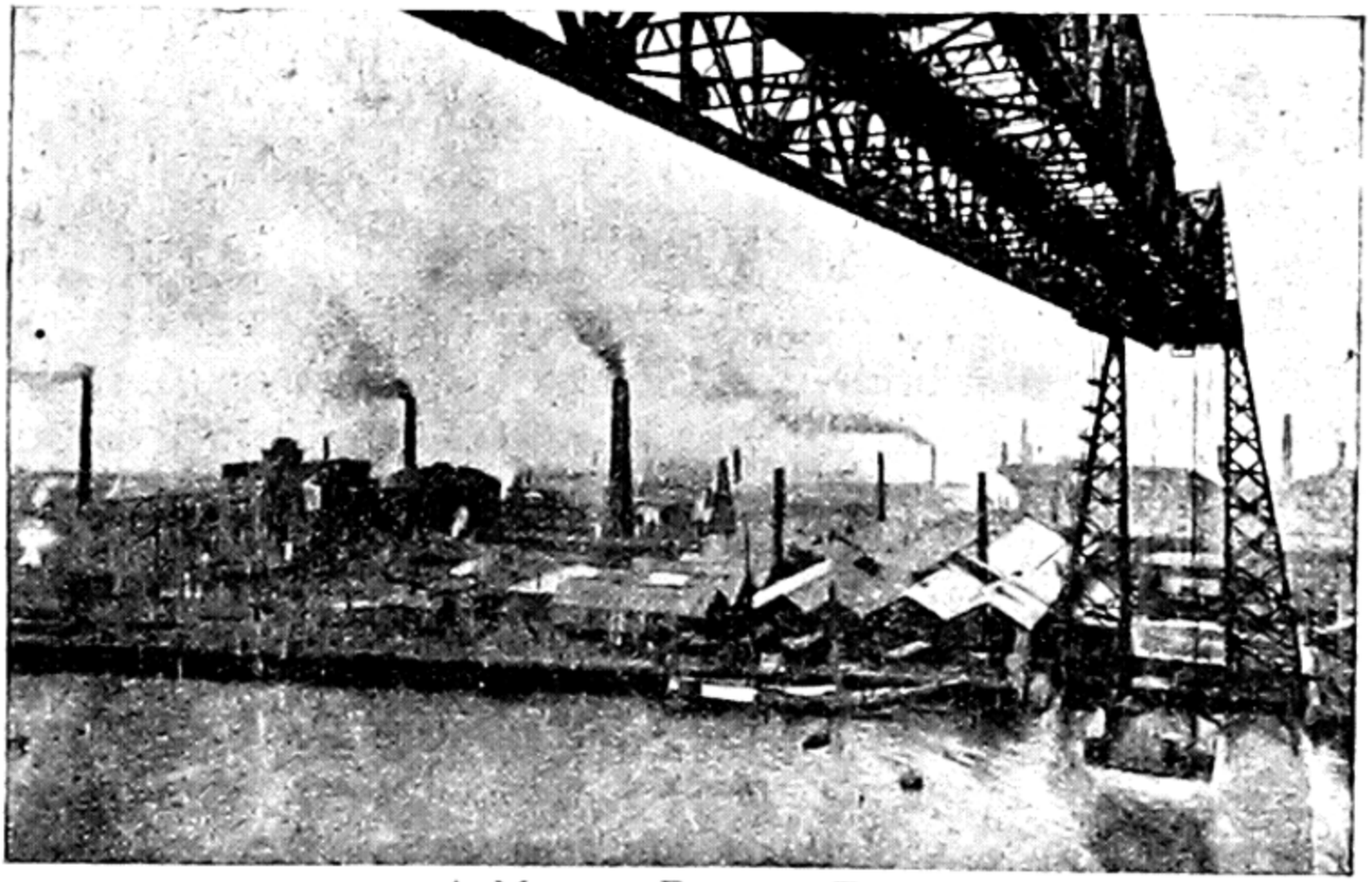


ABRAHAM DARBY'S IRON-WORKS, 1788

places where iron was 'smelted' were usually near the forests. In England this was mostly in the Midlands, and south of London.

But as more and more iron was needed, the supply of wood for charcoal began to be too small. An English iron-smelter named ABRAHAM DARBY tried using *coal* instead of wood, and he found that by turning coal into coke, as wood is turned into charcoal by partly burning it, coal could be used for smelting. This discovery soon led to the setting up of iron-smelting works in places where coal was found: such places

are mostly in the north Midlands and north-east parts of England, and in mid-Scotland. This is also why the chief iron and steel works of India are near the Indian coal-fields, now.



A Modern Factory Town

Another important discovery was then made. To produce more and more heat it was necessary to have a very strong 'blast' of air forced into the furnace. The bellows that pump air into the forge of the ordinary smith are worked by hand. It was found that more force could be obtained if they were worked hy horse-power: then water-power was tried: and finally Watt's steam-engine was used for making a very strong 'blast'. Thus the steam-engine helped to make better iron, and the making of better iron helped to improve the steam-engine. Iron was very soon found to be more and more useful, and larger and larger quantities of it were made. The parts of England and Scotland where both iron and coal are

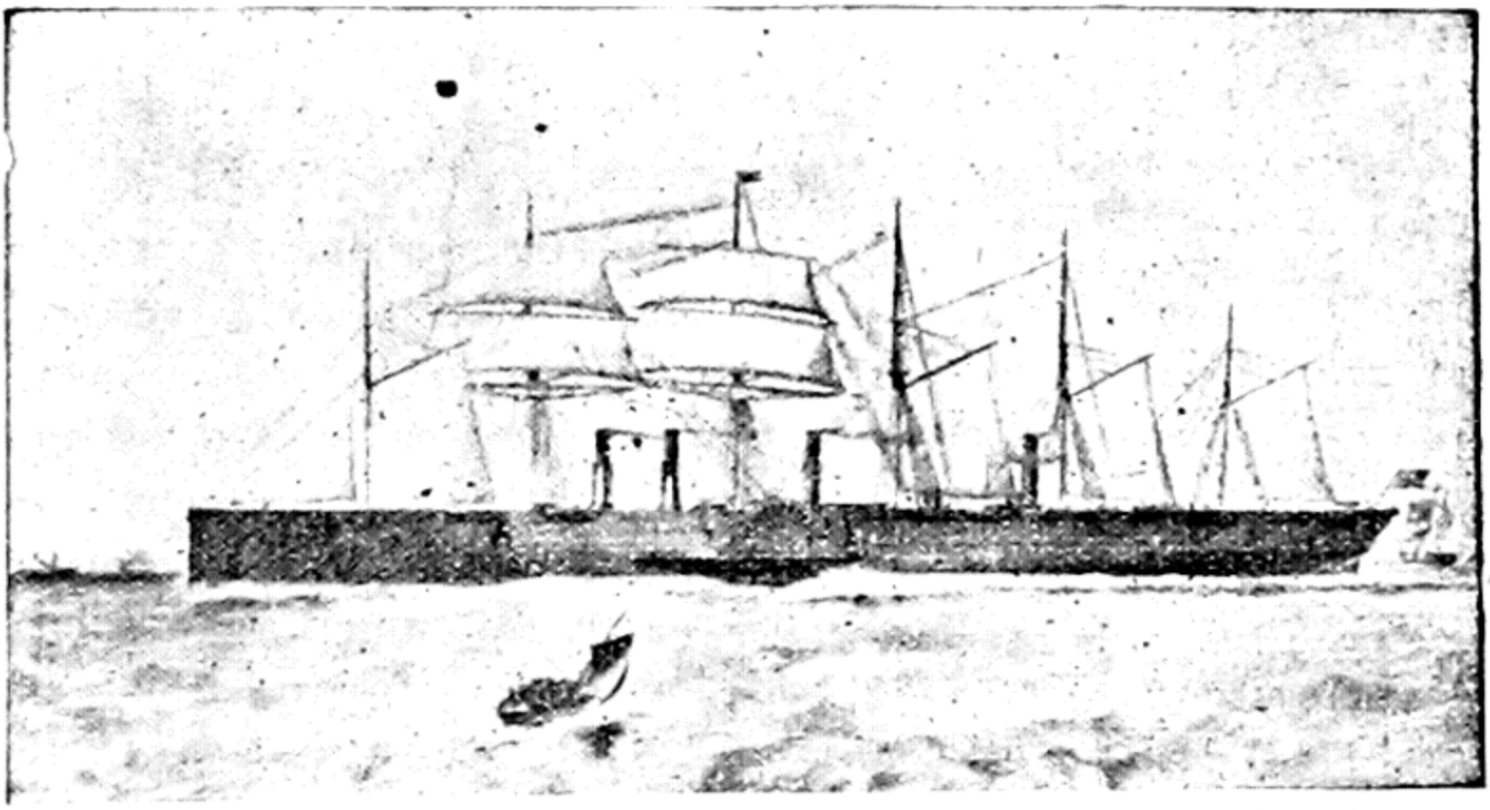
found became covered with coal-mines and iron-foundries—and with smoky towns in which thousands of coal-miners and iron-workers were crowded into small houses (or what we should call 'chawls' in India). The English and Scottish manufacturers could easily lead the way in making iron, partly because of the new inventions and partly because coal and iron are found easily and in large quantities in their country.

[Key-Question 46: *How was transport made easier at this time?*]

§46. Soon, all sorts of new things began to be made of iron. It began to take the place of wood for parts of buildings; in 1779 the first iron bridge was built by the same man, Abraham Darby, who first used coke for smelting. The bridge is still standing: it crosses the river Severn at the little town named Ironbridge. A few years later the first ship was built of iron.

The increase of trade and industry made people feel the need for better and quicker ways of travel, and for the transport of heavy goods. Up to this time the roads all over Europe—in fact in all parts of the world—had been very bad. Hardly any good roads had been made since the time of the Romans, nearly 1,500 years before. One of the most famous road-engineers was McADAM who invented the method of making roads which now bears his name. Nowadays almost everyone in India has seen 'macadam' roads being made by spreading small sharp pieces of stone and pressing them down with a heavy roller and then covering them with wet sand and rolling them again. It seems a simple thing, but before McAdam found it out (about A.D. 1800) the roads had either been totally neglected or, in towns, had been made with great difficulty by placing large pieces of stone close together, making a very uneven surface. The making of new roads increased the need for good bridges too, and soon many more iron bridges were made.

Another method of transport which increased greatly at this time was by barges, or cargo boats, on canals. Canals are, of course, a very ancient invention of man, made long ago in Egypt, Assyria, China and India. Leonardo da Vinci (see Lesson 6[1]) was one of the first to improve canals



'THE GREAT EASTERN', BIGGEST STEAMSHIP OF EARLY TIMES (1858)

in Italy: and among European countries Holland and France are most famous for their fine canals.

In 1801 one of Watt's engines was fitted into a boat by a man named WILLIAM SYMINGTON: it turned a paddle-wheel fixed at the stern, and the boat was found to be quite capable of towing a line of barges (flat-bottomed cargo-boats) along the Forth and Clyde Canal in Scotland. This was the first steam-boat. A few years later an American, ROBERT FULTON, made a number of successful steam-boats fitted with Watt's engines. The first steamship to cross the Atlantic ocean was also an American ship. The early steamships all had paddle-wheels (the screw propeller was invented later),

[1] And Section 12 of *The Struggle of Modern Man*, (5th ed.).

and were fitted with sails also, in case their engines broke down.

EXERCISES

1. Why was the improvement of iron-manufacture a necessary step in the Industrial Revolution ?
2. In what ways was transport made easier at this time ?
3. Read more about the manufacture of iron, and describe how it is made in several ways.

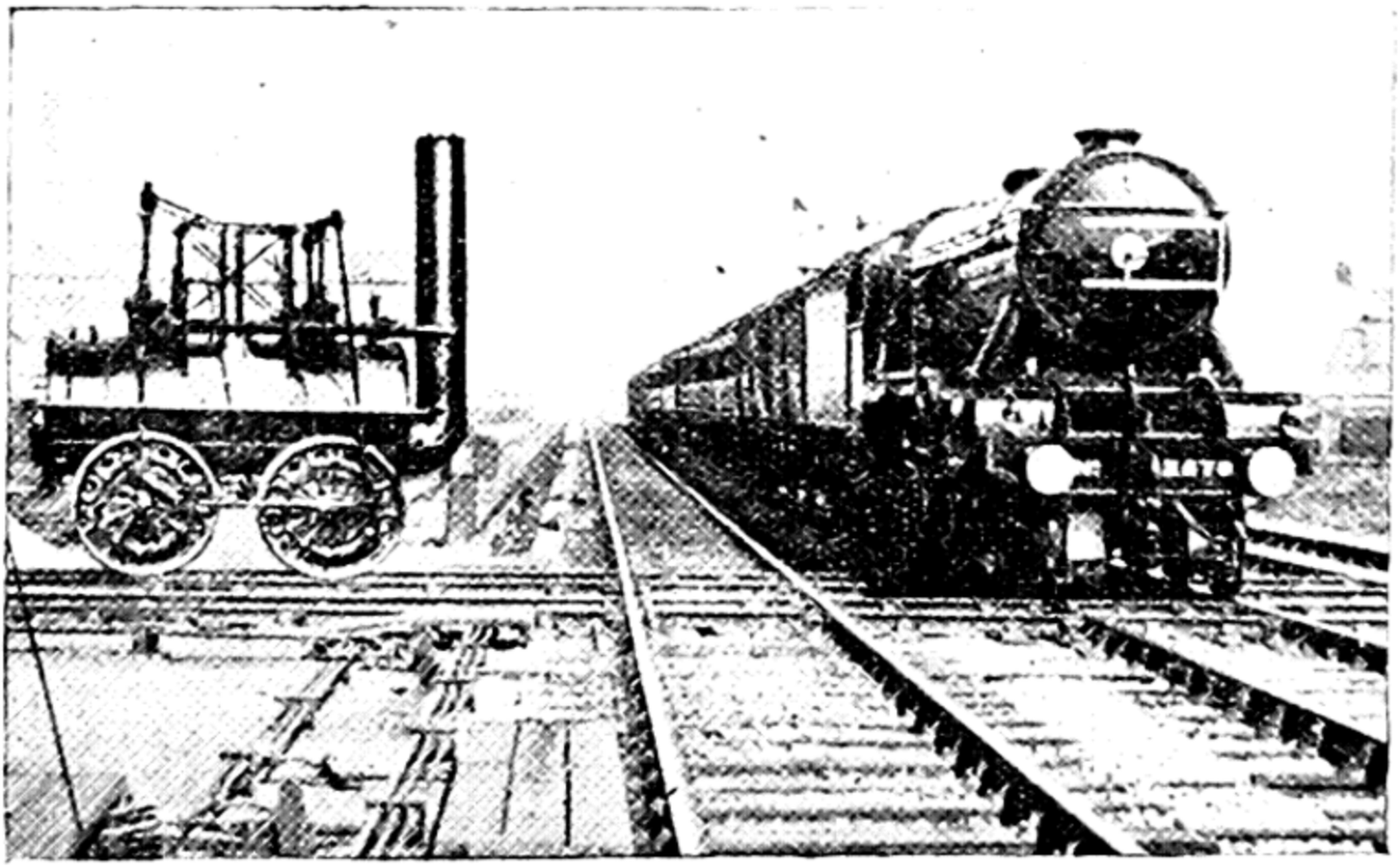
LESSON 24 : RAILWAYS

[Key-Question 47 : *How were railways invented ?*]

§47. The final stage came when the steam-engine was fitted to a truck on wheels, thus making a 'locomotive' (i.e. an engine which moves from one place to another by its own power). The idea of running trucks on *rails*, instead of on an ordinary road, had already been invented, in connexion with the work of coal-mining. In the seventeenth century, trucks loaded with coal had been moved on lines of wooden planks. Because these wore out very soon, similar tracks made of iron were used at a coal-mine in England in 1776. Then came the idea of making L-shaped rails : and finally that of making the flanges of the wheels L-shaped, so that they would not run off plain rails. In the meantime, the first steam-locomotive had been invented.

In 1801, a man called RICHARD TREVETHICK was working in a tin-mine in Cornwall. He fitted one of Watt's engines into a truck which ran on an ordinary road. Then, in 1804, he made a similar locomotive to run on rails. About the same time a young man was working at a coal-mine near Newcastle. He was the son of one of the firemen at the mine. The family was so poor that they could not afford to send the boy to school ; he had to work to add something to the small wages of his father. The boy was GEORGE STEPHENSON. His job at the mine was to look after a fixed engine which pulled

trucks of coal up a hill by means of a rope. Not content just to do that, he started thinking how he could make a machine to do the work better, a travelling engine which would pull the trucks up the hill on rails. In 1815 he succeeded. Soon,



THE OLD AND THE NEW: A CENTURY OF PROGRESS IN THE RAILWAY ENGINE

many of the mines began to use his steam-locomotives for pulling their trucks of coal. 'But if a locomotive can be used to pull trucks of coal, then why not to pull trucks of passengers?' people began to ask. So a railway was made by George Stephenson in 1825 to carry passengers between the English towns of Stockton and Darlington. Its first engine can still be seen standing at Darlington railway-station.

[Key-Question 48: *What was the result of the invention of railways?*]

§48. In 1829 it was decided to build a railway between the big cities of Liverpool and Manchester. It was announced

that a competition would be held to choose the best locomotive for this railway. A prize of £500 was offered to the engineer whose locomotive could most swiftly pull a train of loaded trucks over a course 70 miles in length. Four inventors sent their engines. Stephenson's engine was called 'The Rocket', and it was the first to be tried. It completed the course successfully, and when the trucks were detached the locomotive by itself went at a speed of 35 miles per hour. None of the other three engines could even complete the course, so Stephenson won the prize and became the engineer of the first important passenger-railway in the world, the Liverpool and Manchester Railway.

The new form of transport immediately became successful. Within ten years not less than two hundred and fifty railway companies had been formed in England alone! Railways began to be built all over the world. The final step in the Industrial Revolution had been taken.

Since the invention of agriculture, long, long ago (perhaps 10,000 years ago), there has been no change in man's way of living so great as the change that was caused in the nineteenth century A.D., through the use of machinery to produce goods in great quantities, and to transport them across lands and oceans to every country of the world. This change can truly be called a 'revolution'. It was not a change of government but a change in the way of working (an industrial revolution) and a social revolution (a great change in the way of living).

We shall learn in the following lessons what problems this revolution made for the men who owned or worked the machines, and for those who were thrown out of work owing to the growth of factories.

EXERCISES

1. Describe the stages of the development of railways?
2. Find out more about some of the chief railways of the world, and write something about them.
3. How does a locomotive work? Find out and explain with a diagram.
4. In what ways did the invention of machinery change people's ways of living?

8

The Fight Against Want, Disease and Cruelty

LESSON 25 : THE NEED FOR MORE FOOD

[Key-Question 49 : *What improvements were made in agriculture at this time?*]

§49. The Industrial Revolution soon began to affect the lives of all the people of the British Isles, not only those living near the factories and big towns.

Until the time of the Industrial Revolution nearly all the things commonly needed—such as foodstuffs, cloth, tools, etc. —were grown or made in each town and village by the people who needed them, just as in most parts of Asia today. But when factories sprang up, thousands of people began to live in crowded towns, where food could not be grown. It was, therefore, necessary to grow more food in the villages, and this was sold to the people of the towns in exchange for manufactured articles.

Agriculture was carried on in Europe, before the Industrial Revolution, in very much the same way as it is carried on in Indian villages now. Each farmer owned a number of small strips of land, not joined together in one large plot but separated from each other by strips owned by other farmers. In many ways the farmers of Europe were worse off than the Indian farmers now, because they did not know that it was bad

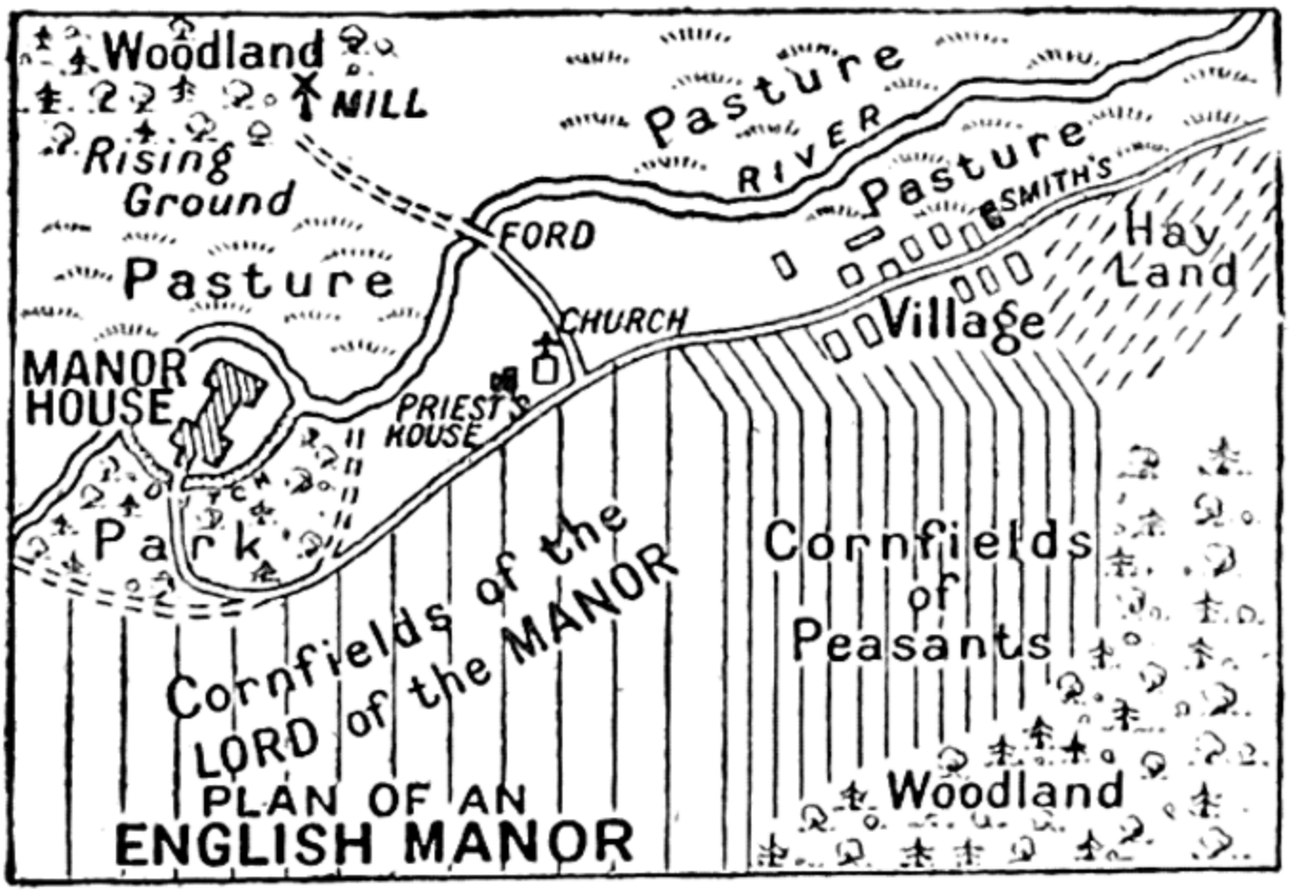
for their fields to sow the same crop on the same land year after year. They did not know that there are some plants (such as clover and legumes) which help to give back the lost nourishment to the soil, and which are also useful for food either for animals or men. As a result of this ignorance, the soil became poorer and poorer, and the crops became smaller and smaller. And, because they did not grow food for their animals, a great many of the animals had to be killed every year before the cold winter weather came. The meat was preserved in salt to be used for the people's winter food.

Valuable experiments to overcome these difficulties were made, from 1730 onwards by CHARLES TOWNSHEND, brother-in-law of the first Prime Minister (see Lesson 13). Instead of always growing grain, he adopted the principle of 'rotation' of crops, i.e. growing on the same field in successive years turnips, barley, clover, wheat. Clover is very good for cattle in winter, and also gives back the nourishment to the soil, needed for the better growth of barley and wheat. This improvement in the feeding of animals in winter and in careful breeding led to improvement of the animals themselves. In this way much bigger and better sheep and cattle were produced, which could give more wool, meat, and milk.

[Key-Question 50 : *What caused much discontent at this time?*]

§50. The other difficulty, caused by the small size of the strips of farm-land, was overcome in a more harmful way. In England, as in India, there used to be large areas of land belonging to the entire village, 'common land' as it was called, where anyone could freely keep cattle for grazing. To get more land for themselves, the big landowners of the eighteenth century obtained permission from Parliament to 'enclose'

many of these common lands ; that is, they put fences round the land so that it was no longer for the use of all, but only for themselves. Big landowners found it more profitable to breed sheep for their wool and meat than to till the fields. They were able to get Parliament's permission to do this because, as we



ENGLISH VILLAGE BEFORE THE 'ENCLOSURES'

learned in Lesson 13, there were no representatives of the poorer people in Parliament at that time.

All these improvements in manufactures, means of transport, and agriculture, brought wealth to many people in the British Isles in the eighteenth century, and still further increased the power of the ' middle class '. But the condition of the poor became worse, because many of them were driven off the land ; and gradually more and more people from the villages had to go to the towns to find work in factories. When people live in poverty and ignorance, and especially when they are crowded together in towns, there is always a rapid increase of

population. So the population of the British Isles, and especially of England, increased very rapidly at this time. In 1800 it was about 15 millions: by the year 1900 it was 45 mllions. It is now beginning to decline.

This very rapid increase in the number of people meant that still more food had to be obtained. It was soon found impossible for the British Isles to grow enough food for all its people. Why not buy food from other countries where there was still plenty of land? But if foreign grain was brought into England and sold cheaply, the price of English grain would go down, and this would mean less profit for the English landowners. So for a long time Parliament would not allow foreign grain to be brought to England unless a tax was paid on it, so that it must be sold at a price not lower than that of English grain. The law by which this tax was collected was known as 'The Corn Law' ('corn' means 'grain'). The high price of grain caused more and more misery to the poor, and more and more people began to feel that 'The Corn Law' must be changed. But this could not be done so long as Parliament contained only the representatives of the rich. Presently riots began to break out, and meetings were held demanding that changes should be made in the constitution of Parliament. What happened we shall learn in Lesson 29.

EXERCISES

1. What were the defects of agriculture in England before 1700? How were they remedied?
2. Why was discontent caused by the enclosure of common land?
3. Why did the need for food increase at this time? What were the Corn Laws and why did the poor people want them abolished?

LESSON 26: THE FIGHT FOR FREEDOM FROM DISEASE AND PAIN

[Key-Question 51: *How was vaccination*[1] *discovered?*]

§51. Just before the year 1800 an important discovery was made by an English doctor named EDWARD JENNER. The disease called smallpox was then common in England, and it was difficult to cure. Most people who caught the disease died of it. Jenner's home was in a village and one day he heard a dairymaid say: 'I cannot get smallpox because I have had cowpox.' This made him think. He found out that it was true. Cowpox is a disease of cows, similar to smallpox but not nearly so serious. If human beings catch that disease, they are almost certain not to get smallpox. Jenner did not know why and he could not find out. But it was a fact. The work of a dairymaid (milking cows) makes it very likely for her to get cowpox. But by that she was saved from getting smallpox. Jenner made up his mind to do a dangerous experiment. He took some of the matter from a cowpox sore and put it into the veins of a boy. The boy developed cowpox, and soon got well again. Then Jenner took some matter from a smallpox sore and put it into the body of the same boy. He did *not* get smallpox. This was how 'vaccination' was discovered. It is used all over the world now, and smallpox has entirely disappeared in the British Isles and many other countries.



EDWARD JENNER

[1] Pronounced 'vax-in-a-shun'

But Jenner never knew *why* a person who has had cowpox cannot get smallpox. This could not be found out until another discovery had been made. This discovery was not made until nearly 100 years later, when ROBERT KOCH,[1] a German doctor, found out how we get certain diseases. When looking through a microscope at drops of blood taken from persons suffering from diseases such as typhoid, cholera, pneumonia, etc., he observed certain objects in the blood, which were not seen in the blood of healthy persons. He found that these were the 'germs', or seeds, of the diseases. They were different in the cases of different diseases. The next thing was to find out how the disease-germs get into the blood, and how to stop them from doing so, and how to kill them if they get in. This was discovered by LOUIS PASTEUR, a Frenchman.



LOUIS PASTEUR

[Key-Question 52 : *What was discovered by Pasteur and Lister ?*]

§52. Pasteur found that some germs get into the blood through the air we breathe. Such are the germs of influenza, measles, chicken-pox, smallpox, and tuberculosis (T.B.). Some get into us through the food and water we take; such are the germs of cholera, typhoid and dysentery. Some get into us through the bites of insects; such are the malaria and plague germs. It will be clear from this that if we are very careful to breathe pure air, eat and drink clean things only, and avoid

[1] Pronounced 'kok'

bites of mosquitoes, bugs, etc., we can avoid the danger of many of the worst diseases. How to do this is shown in the science of hygiene, or how to keep healthy.

It now became clear why vaccination prevents smallpox. When a few germs of cowpox are put into a man's blood, the blood corpuscles (you will learn more about these in your lessons on physiology) begin to make a substance which kills the cowpox germs. The same substance also kills smallpox germs; so, if the same man gets a few smallpox germs into his blood, they are killed and he does not get smallpox. But the same substance cannot kill the germs of other diseases. To kill the germs of cholera and typhoid, a very, very small quantity of the germs of those diseases is put into the blood. The blood then makes a substance which kills cholera and typhoid germs. This is what is called 'preventive inoculation'—something is put into your blood to prevent you from getting a disease. To stop malaria, quinine is put into the blood. Quinine kills the malaria germs which have been put into the blood by a mosquito.

One of the most terrible diseases that Pasteur's discovery helped to cure is rabies, the disease caused by the bite of a mad dog. Nowadays, all over the world, the special hospitals or departments in which this disease is treated are called 'Pasteur Institutes'.

A wonderful discovery that has saved mankind from much pain was the discovery of *chloroform*, the substance which sends people into a deep sleep or unconsciousness, so that operations can be done on the body, and even parts can be cut off, while the patient is unconscious. Before this discovery was made, operations had to be done with the patient able to feel everything. Imagine how fearful it would be to have a leg cut off or a bullet taken out—or even a tooth—without

any way to stop the pain! The use of chloroform was discovered by a young Scottish doctor, JAMES SIMPSON, in 1847.

But there was still another difficulty to overcome. It was soon noticed that even when an operation had been done successfully, and without pain to the patient, the patient often died, a few weeks later, from poisoning of the blood. JOSEPH LISTER, a young doctor working in a Glasgow hospital, made up his mind to find out the reason for this. After many careful observations Lister discovered in 1865 that the poisoning was due to germs in the air around as, and in water. These get into wounds, causing them to become 'septic', i.e. the flesh begins to rot or decay, and the poisonous matter passes into the blood. To prevent this, it was necessary to find some substance which would be 'anti-septic'. Lister found that carbolic acid is such a substance: no germs can live in it, but it does no harm to the body, if it is put only on the outside and not in the mouth. By dressing the wounds of his hospital-patients with carbolic acid, Lister was able to save thousands of lives.



SIR JAMES YOUNG SIMPSON



JOSEPH LISTER

EXERCISES

1. How does vaccination prevent a person from getting smallpox?
2. What important discoveries were made by Koch, Lister, Pasteur and Simpson?
3. What causes malaria, plague, smallpox and cholera?

LESSON 27: SAVING PEOPLE FROM SLAVERY

[Key-Question 53: *How did the slave-trade begin, and how did it become a cause of Civil War in the U. S. A.?*]

§53. Terribly cruel actions done by men to their fellow-men have been due to intolerance, to the fear of new ideas about religion, or about government. But equally terrible cruelties have been caused by greed, by the desire to get rich quickly. The Industrial Revolution, which suddenly brought so many new opportunities for increasing wealth, was the cause of much thoughtless cruelty of this sort.

The demand for tropical products such as sugar, spices, coffee, and tobacco, made it very profitable to grow them in South America and the southern part of North America. The cheapest method was to use slave-labour, and the easiest way to get slaves was to attack the negro tribes living along the west coast of Africa, and to carry them off in shiploads across the Atlantic. Merchants belonging to all sea-loving nations—particularly the Spanish, the British, and the Portuguese, who had colonies in America—carried on this trade in slaves from about A.D. 1600 onwards. By the year 1790 there were nearly 700,000 negro slaves working in America.

But there were many people who felt ashamed that human beings should be bought and sold like animals; and at about the time of the French Revolution, laws were passed in England making it a crime to trade in slaves. The leader of this agitation against slavery was an Englishman named WILLIAM WILBERFORCE.

By 1824 laws were passed ordering that any remaining slaves in the British empire should be set free, and no more slavery should be permitted. Other countries of Europe also passed similar laws about the same time.



SLAVE TRADERS

But it was much more difficult for the Americans to pass such laws. The use of machinery for making cotton goods had very greatly increased the demand for raw cotton, and the southern states of the U.S.A. were now covered with big estates on which cotton was grown by s l a v e - l a b o u r. Although it was against the law to carry slaves from Africa, many were still brought secretly (and with much greater cruelty owing to the need of hiding the slaves carried by the ships). By the year 1861 there were no less than four million slaves in the U.S.A. ! The southerners believed that it would be disastrous to them if they had to set these workers free. It was easy, they said, for the northerners and the Europeans to talk about freeing the slaves, for almost no slaves were employed in those countries.

The question of slavery thus became a very serious cause of quarrel between the northern and the southern states of the U.S.A. The Industrial Revolution had spread to America, and in the northern states (which are rich in coal and iron)



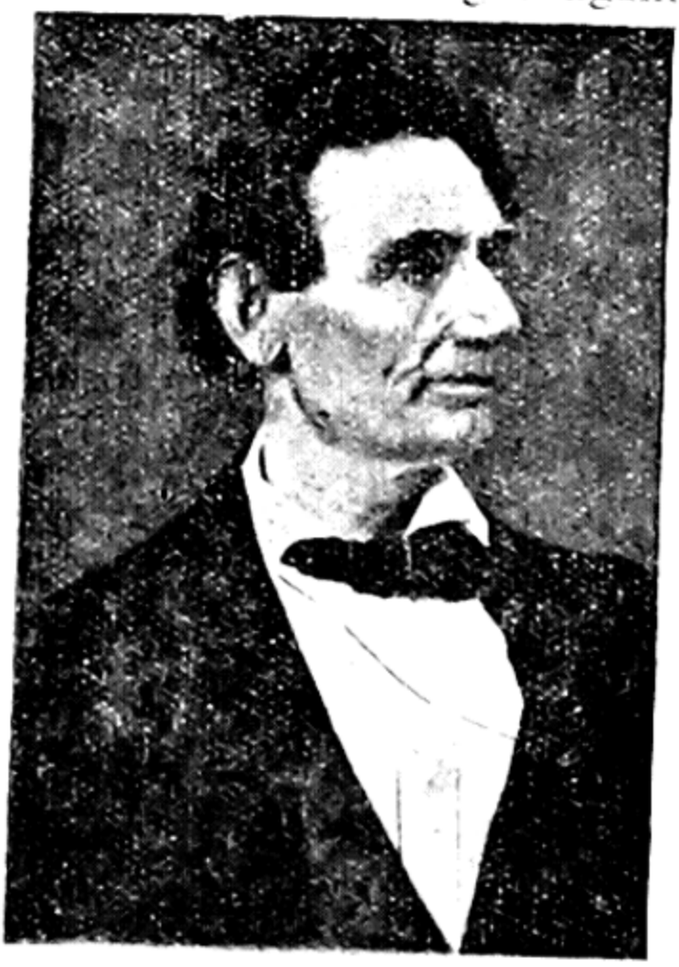
SLAVES PICKING COTTON IN THE U.S.A.

factory-towns were rapidly springing up, and the people were eager to adopt new and progressive ideas. In the southern states were many large estates owned by wealthy country-gentlemen, who were against any change in their way of living. They wanted to go on managing their estates, in their own way, with slave-labour. Presently they began to feel that the only way for them to avoid interference by the northerners was to secede (i.e. withdraw) altogether from the Federation of the United States, and form a new independent nation of their own, called the **'Confederacy'.**

The election, as President of the U.S A in 1860, of a man who was opposed to slavery, made the southern states finally decide to secede. The name of that President was ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

[Key-Question 54: *Why was Lincoln determined to defeat the southerners?*]

§54. To force the southerners to abolish slavery, Lincoln would not have been willing to carry on a terrible war, in which brothers fought against brothers, and fathers against sons. Rather than that, he declared that he would let slavery go on in those states which desired it. But there was a greater cause, for which he was prepared to fight to the end. That was the question whether or not the United States should cease to be united. Lincoln believed that under no circumstances must the Union be broken by the setting up of an independent Confederacy of the southern states. To decide this, half a million Americans killed each other in one of the most destructive wars ever fought. The war went on and on for four long years. In the end the northerners won.



ABRAHAM LINCOLN

Lincoln was ready to treat the defeated southerners generously. But he never lived to see his plans carried out. A few days after the end of the war he was attending a celebration of the victory, when he was shot by a man who believed Lincoln had done him some small injustice. He died the next morning.

The south had to free the slaves, and the negroes were given the full rights of American citizenship—on paper. But

this did not solve the problem of the negro population of America; and it has not yet been solved. There are now more than twelve million negroes in the U.S.A.—nearly one-tenth of its whole population. Many of them have been well educated; some are wealthy: and none can be employed except for wages. Yet in some ways they are still made to feel that they are no better than the slaves that their forefathers used to be. Their number is increasing. Their future is one of the big problems America has to face.

EXERCISES

1. Mention some of the chief causes of men's cruelty to other men and women. (Try to think of some others, besides those given in this chapter.)
2. Why did slavery increase so rapidly in America, and how did it come to an end? What results did it leave behind?
3. Why is a Civil War in some ways more terrible than any other kind of war? Why did Lincoln support the northern states in their fight against the south?
4. Read the book called *Uncle Tom's Cabin* which describes the life of negro slaves in the southern states of the U.S.A.

LESSON 28: PUTTING A STOP TO CRUELTY

[Key-Question 55: *What evils did John Howard and Florence Nightingale try to get rid of?*]

§55. One of the signs that people are becoming more civilized is when men and women protest against cruelty of various sorts, and work to put a stop to it.

A hundred and fifty years ago, if a person was sent to prison he had a terrible time. The prisons were not kept clean: there were no rules about the prisoners' food: and if they fell ill (as often happened) there was no one to do anything for them. If the jailor in charge of the prison happened to be a kind-hearted man, he might help. But he was not obliged to do so. Prisoners who had no money and no wealthy friends therefore often died in prison. Nobody cared. Had they not been put in prison because they had done wrong?

Sad to say, also, in those times people were sent to prison for very small acts of wrongdoing. A man could be hanged for stealing. Even little children were sent to prison sometimes.

JOHN HOWARD was a high official of one of the counties (provinces) of England, and he often had to send to prison people who had broken the laws. But one day he went to see the prison of his own town, Bedford. He was so shocked that he made up his mind to get rules laid down about the proper treatment of prisoners. He spent about fifteen years travelling to see the prisons all over England and in other countries of Europe. He wrote a book describing what he had seen, and as a result of this the laws about imprisonment and the treatment of prisoners in England were improved. Howard died in Russia from a fever which he caught when inspecting prisons there.



JOHN HOWARD

FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE, a woman from a high and wealthy family, gave her life to the improvement of the nursing of patients in hospitals. She went out to nurse soldiers wounded in the Crimean War between Britain and Russia in 1854. She found the hospitals in a terrible condition, with no medicines or arrangements for cleanliness. When she returned to England she did a great deal to arrange for the training of nurses for work in hospitals.

[Key-Question 56 : *What was the special work of Lord Shaftesbury ?*]

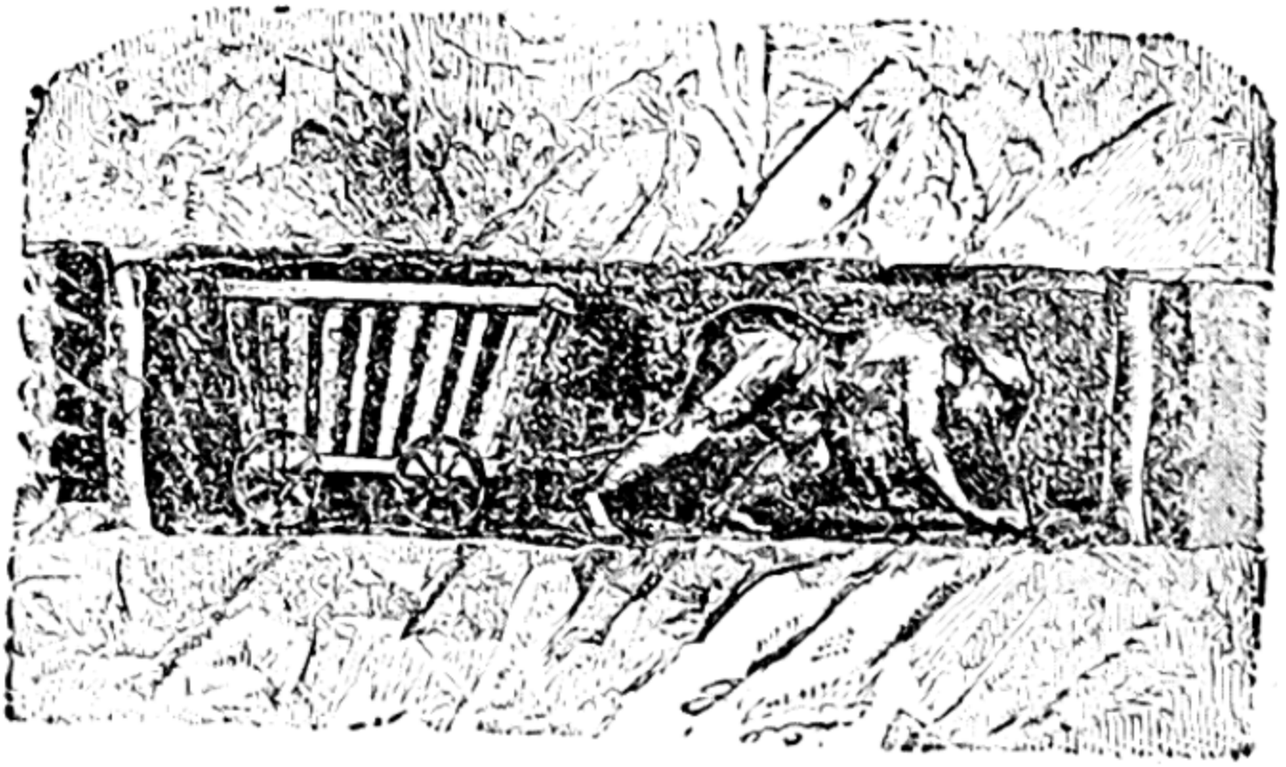
§56. But perhaps the greatest of all these workers was Anthony Ashley Cooper, who afterwards became LORD SHAFTESBURY. The worst cruelty in the new factories was the treatment of young children. They were driven to work on very small wages for terribly long hours in the mines, the cotton-mills and other factories. Shaftesbury, though the son of a wealthy man, had been harshly treated by his own father, and half-starved at school. When he grew older, he did not forget what it felt like to be ill-treated as a child and he made up his mind to work for children. He became a Member of Parliament when he was only 25 years old, and he worked for nearly twenty years before he could persuade the House of Commons in 1842 to pass a law to stop the employment of children in factories for more than ten hours a day. Imagine what it must have been like when little children were actually chained to the looms or other machinery and forced to work even for fifteen hours daily !



LORD SHAFTESBURY

Then Shaftesbury set to work to stop the cruel treatment of children employed in the coal-mines. Here they were made to crawl along dark underground passages, pulling small trucks of coal. Another cruelty was the sending of children up tall chimneys to clean them—like Tom, the chimney-sweep, in the famous story *The Water Babies*.

From the helping of children employed in mines and factories, Shaftesbury went on to the helping of those who were homeless and hungry. In London and other great cities of that time there were thousands of children who lived by begging or stealing, as there are in Bombay and Calcutta even now. Shaftesbury got 'Children's Homes' started for the care of these children. Later on, he started an organization called 'The Ragged School Union' which ran night schools and in other ways tried to help these little victims of the Industrial Revolution.



CHILDREN PULLING TRUCKS OF COAL ALONG UNDERGROUND PASSAGES

At all times there have no doubt been people who live by begging, either because they are unwilling or because they are unfit to work. The growth of great cities has made the life of such people far harder. An ever-increasing number of men and women has been added to them, thrown out of work either through the use of machines, or because no work could be found for them owing to the competition of other countries, in which articles could be grown or manufactured more

cheaply. Unemployment has been growing more and more serious in nearly all countries from the time of the Industrial Revolution down to the present day, and it remains another great problem to which a solution it still to be found.

In all history there has been no finer example of a man who literally gave his whole life to helping the helpless than FATHER DAMIEN. Damien was born in Belgium, and became



FATHER DAMIEN

a Roman Catholic priest. He went out to Hawaii in 1863 as a missionary. On one of the islands there was a small colony of people who had the dreadful disease, leprosy. They had no doctor and no one to help them, as everybody was afraid of catching the disease. In 1873 Damien went to live among the people suffering from leprosy. He became their doctor, their teacher, their leader and their friend. For 16 years he worked for them, and then he caught the disease himself, and died. He had lived, and died, for the sake of helping others who had none to help them.

EXCERCISES

1. What signs are there that men and women are more civilized now than they used to be?
2. Mention some of the problems which modern civilization has so far been unable to solve? Try to suggest some possible solutions.
3. Which of the people mentioned in this lesson seem to you to be most worthy of admiration?

9

Reform or Revolution?

LESSON 29: THE REFORM OF PARLIAMENT

[Key-Question 57: *How did Parliament become completely representative of the British nation?*]

§57. In previous lessons we have read about 'Parliament'. But who exactly were the members of Parliament? Could *anybody* become a member? The answer is 'No'. There was no rule that only rich men or men in high positions could be elected, but it was impossible for a poor man to become a Member of Parliament because it was too costly. Members of Parliament were not paid any salary at that time. So only those who had enough money to live in London without doing other work could possibly be members. The members of Parliament at that time really represented only the rich, because only the rich landowners and the fairly rich people of the towns were allowed to vote at elections. In this way the government of the country by Parliament was really government by the rich. It was *plutocracy*.

This is one of the reasons why the British Parliament was willing to spend money on costly wars to protect the British colonies, and to prevent other nations from interfering with British trade. Many of the members themselves got money through shipping and trade. Some of them were merchants whose wealth came from businesses which needed raw-materials grown in the colonies (such as cotton, tobacco,

etc.). These were people of the 'upper middle class' about which we read at the end of Lesson 14.

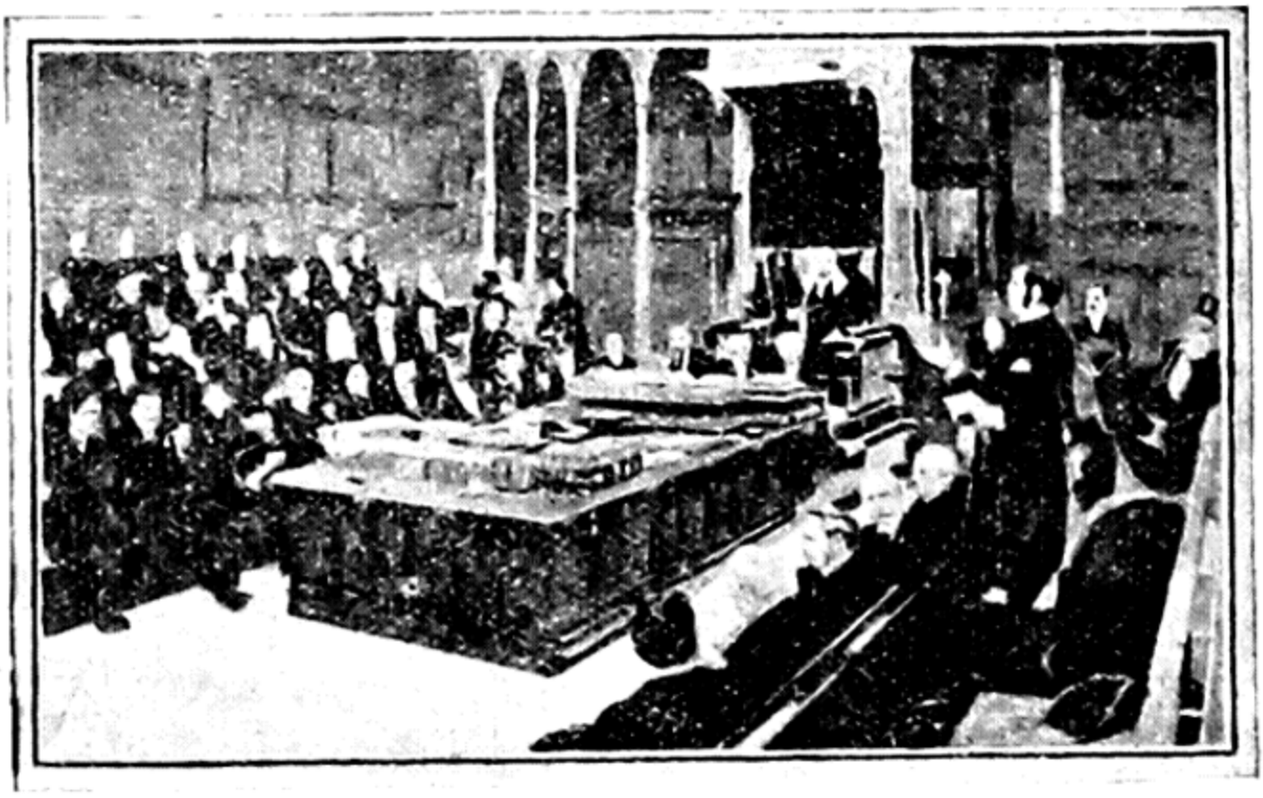
After the Industrial Revolution, England became a much wealthier country. There were many more people who were fairly rich. Many small factories, trading businesses, and all sorts of shops were started, and the people who owned them and managed them were neither poor nor very rich. They were the people of the 'lower middle class'.

The 'lower middle class' people were usually well educated —or educated as well as it was possible to be in those times, for there were then no schools run by the Government. All schools were carried on either by the church or by private school-masters. In many cases children were taught by teachers at home. These educated people soon began to think that 'plutocracy' was not satisfactory, because they had little or no chance of getting their representatives into Parliament. An agitation therefore began for the 'reform' of Parliament. It was proposed that the vote should now be given to all 'middle class' people. After a big struggle—which nearly came to civil war—the FIRST REFORM BILL was passed in 1832. It was the new Parliament, elected after this reform, which abolished slavery and passed the bills stopping the cruel employment of little children in factories.

But the Government was still not really a 'democracy', or rule by the people, for there were no representatives at all of the 'working class', that is the people who earn their living by working with their hands, in factories and shops, in loading and unloading ships, and in farming. It was not until 1867 that the vote was given to some of these when the SECOND REFORM BILL was passed.

The result of having a Parliament more fully representative of the whole nation was that new laws were passed which

helped to improve the condition of the people in several more ways. Under the great Prime Minister of the Liberal Party, W. E. GLADSTONE, the first Education Bill was passed, in 1870, setting up free national primary schools. It was Gladstone, too, who first tried to give self-government to Ireland, and it was at this time that the first great experiment in *Dominion self-government* was tried and proved successful, when Canada became a Federal Dominion in 1867 (see Lesson 17).



THE HOUSE OF COMMONS IN SESSION

Members of the British Parliament did not get salaries until 1911. The vote was not given to women until 1918. In 1928 it was extended to all citizens over 21 years of age.

[Key-Question 58: *What are some of the advantages and disadvantages of Parliamentary government?*]

§58. There are several advantages of Parliamentary government. The first is that it prevents a king, or any strong leader, from becoming a tyrant. Parliament possesses 'the

power of the purse'. This means that the people cannot be taxed without Parliament's permission, and all money to be spent by the king and his Government has to be granted by Parliament every year (in the Budget, as it is called). Also, if anything wrong is being done by the ministers, or by any responsible person in any department of the nation's life and work, it is certain to be made known. It is then discussed in Parliament and, in course of time, set right.

But it is here that there are also disadvantages in Parliamentary government. It is very slow. It is not a good system for getting things done quickly. It takes Parliament a long time to make new laws. A large number of members want to give their opinion and there are many delays. Such delays are very harmful to the nation when there is a very serious difficulty to be overcome, such as a famine, or an invasion, or some such dangerous happening. Experiments are now being made in various countries to discover a way of getting the work of the nation done more quickly.

Every citizen of a nation has both rights and duties. Parliamentary government has helped a great deal to guard the people's rights, and to prevent kings and dictators from taking them away. Strong rulers always think more of the duties of the people to obey them, than of the rights of the people to be well governed. That is why dictators, such as Mussolini and Hitler, hated Parliaments and democracy. One of the big remaining problems of modern life is to find a way of making everyone do his duty without taking away his necessary rights. Democracy is 'the government *of* the people, *for* the people, *by* the people'. We have to find out how to make this into the government of the people for the good of *all* the people, by the people who can be trusted to govern *well*. This is one of the problems which you will have to

help to solve for your own country. It is discussed in the sequel to this book '*The Struggle of Democracy*'.

EXERCISES

1. Write a short account of the origin and growth of the British system of 'Parliamentary Democracy' (See Lessons 4, 10, 12, 14 and 29).
2. Why did England not remain a republic? Why did the U.S.A. dislike having a king?
3. What other methods of government have you heard of besides Parliamentary government? What are their advantages and disadvantages?

LESSON 30: REVOLUTIONS IN GOVERNMENT —SOUTH AMERICA

[Key-Question 59: *How did the states of South America win their independence?*]

§59. We have seen in previous lessons how the people of western Europe and of North America rebelled against their despotic kings. The idea quickly spread (helped by the work of great writers such as Voltaire and Rousseau) that *all* the people of a country, and not only the nobles and rich men, have the right to live decently, and also to take some part in the management of the affairs of the country in which they live. We have seen how the American colonists established a democratic republic, and how France did the same, though for a time Napoleon Bonaparte managed to get himself made emperor. But even then he was only able to become emperor because most of the French people wanted him.

After the American War of Independence and the French Revolution the idea of political freedom spread very rapidly. (Politics means the *science of government*, so 'political freedom' means establishing a system of government in which the people are free to choose those who are to govern them.) The people of other countries governed by despots now began to plan to get political freedom. Among the first of these were the Spanish colonists of Central and South America.

You will remember that the Spanish had been the first to discover South America, and many of their people had remained there as colonists. They were very much annoyed when Napoleon put his brother, who was not a Spaniard, on the throne of Spain, and they determined to make themselves independent of Spain. The man who did most to bring this about was SIMON BOLIVAR.

Simon Bolivar, a 'the Liberator' of South America, was born in 1783 at Caracas, a town on the north coast of South America. He came from a noble Spanish family, and was sent to Spain for his education. He was in France during the latter part of the French Revolution, and visited the U.S.A. a little later. Returning to his birthplace when he was 23 years of age, he began to work for the separation of the South American colonies from Spain, In 1811 a Declaration of Independence was issued, under which a federation of states was to be formed in the north-west part of South America, on the model of the U.S.A. The rebels were at first successful, but after three years of fighting against the Spanish Government's forces, Bolivar and his army were badly defeated, and his capital city, Caracas, was captured. Bolivar escaped to a neighbouring city, Cartagena, where he again organized revolt; but he was again defeated, and had to seek refuge in the British colony of Jamaica. After two years he returned to South America, where he now met with success. There was fierce fighting against the Spanish, during which Bolivar actually marched his ill-equipped army across the snow-covered Andes mountains. In 1819 the Spanish army was severely defeated and a new republic was proclaimed, consisting of the states now called Venezuela, Colombia and Ecuador. Bolivar was its first President.



South American States

[Key-Question 60: *What prevented the formation of a 'United States of South America'?*]

§60. The next five years were spent in helping other regions to obtain their freedom from the Spanish: first Panama, and then Peru. Argentina and Chile had, in the meantime, revolted. Having freed themselves from Spanish rule, they formed themselves into republics under their own leaders. Brazil was a Portuguese colony, but in 1822 it was declared an independent kingdom under the rule of the Portuguese prince, Pedro. It became a republic much later, in 1889.

The later part of Bolivar's life was unhappy because he had to see the collapse of the federation of republics which he had created. Once they had freed themselves from Spanish rule, the leaders quarrelled among themselves. The states remained independent of Spain, though they did not succeed in keeping their unity in a Federation, as the United States of North America did.

Simon Bolivar's work is remembered in the name *Bolivia*, one of the South American republics which named itself after him. Also, provinces or cities in no less than four other South American states have taken his name. The unit of currency in the state where he was born, Venezuela, is also named the *bolivar* in memory of him.

Another country whose people fought for their independence about this time was Greece, which had been under the Turks for hundreds of years (almost since the time when the Turks captured Constantinople in 1453). The French and English helped the Greeks, and the Turks were defeated and Greece gained her independence in 1829.

EXERCISES

1. Write a short account of Simon Bolivar and his work.
2. Why did the United States of South America not come into existence?
3. Which European countries were under Turkish rule until 1829?

LESSON 31 : REVOLUTIONS IN GOVERNMENT–ITALY

[Key-Question 61 : *What happened to Italy in Napoleon's time ?*]

§61. Then came the turn of Italy. Italy, as we learned in Lesson 9, was divided into a number of small states. In most of them the rulers tried to live like little 'Grand Monarchs', with the result that their subjects were miserably poor. The conquest of Italy by Napoleon at least brought two benefits to that country—the establishment of law and order under a strong ruler and the making of better roads and bridges. But when Nopoleon was finally defeated in 1815 it was necessary to decide how the various European countries freed from his rule should be governed. For this purpose a great conference of representatives of the nations which had defeated Napoleon was held at Vienna. It was called the *Congress of Vienna.* The conference was not representative of the citizens of those countries, however, but of their kings or rulers. It consisted mostly of men who were themselves wealthy nobles or ministers or generals. Their main object was not to re-arrange Europe for the benefit of its people, but to divide it among their royal masters and their friends, in such a way as to prevent any further revolutions or conquests. The Congress decided that, as far as possible, the various countries should be governed as they had been *before* the French Revolution. This meant dividing up Italy again among all the little dukes and princes, who taxed the people to build their palaces and to dress their bodyguards in smart uniforms, but neglected the repair of roads and public buildings. Naturally there was discontent.

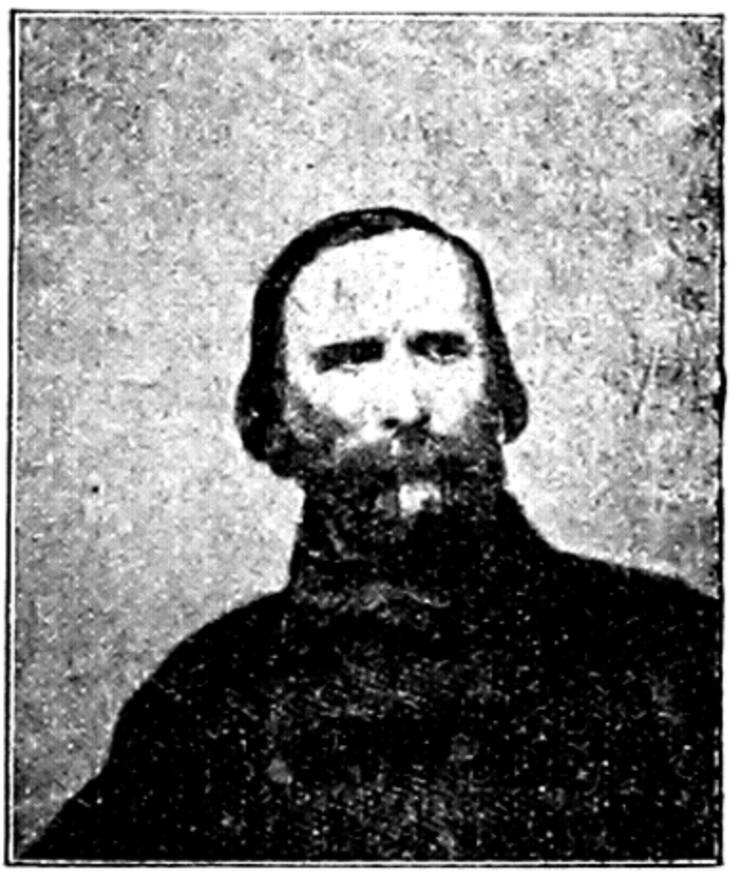
One of those who helped to prepare the way for a change was an Italian writer, MAZZINI.[1] He gave up his whole

[1] Pronounced 'mat-zee-nee'.

life to the work of freeing and uniting the Italian people. He wrote books and articles about the rights and duties of citizenship, and in 1831 he was banished from Italy because of his revolutionary writings and activities. He then organized a society called the 'Young Italians' which, in 1834, planned to seize the arsenal at Genoa in order to get arms for starting an Italian Revolution. The plot was betrayed, and Mazzini had to flee from the country.

[Key-Question 62: *What did Garibaldi do for Italy?*]

§62. Among the 'Young Italians' who took part in this plot was a young sailor named GARIBALDI. On the discovery of the plot Garibaldi also had to flee for his life. He went to South America where, for fourteen years, he took part in several of the revolutions going on there, helping the rebels in their fight for independence, and gaining valuable experience as a soldier and an organizer.



GARIBALDI

At last in 1848 he sailed again for Italy, where he landed at his birthplace, Nice,[1] then ruled by the Italian prince of Sardinia. Garibaldi now helped this prince to organize the Italians to fight against the non-Italian dukes and princes and the Austrian and French armies which were giving them aid. But the rebellion failed, and again Garibaldi had to flee. This time he went to the U. S. A. where,

[1] Pronounced 'neece'.

for ten years, he earned his livelihood as a worker in a candle-factory, and then as captain of a trading-ship. But he never gave up his hope of freeing Italy even though he might have to wait till the end of his life to try again.

In the meantime Mazzini had been busy stirring up the Italians for another effort, and had been winning sympathy for their cause, particularly in England. In 1859 Garibaldi returned from exile for the third time; and in 1860 he was ready to strike the final blow for Italian freedom and unity. He landed in Sicily with a thousand of his red-shirt volunteers. Many more joined him, and soon afterwards Naples and all the south of Italy were his. While he was busy with this, Victor Emmanuel, son of that prince of Sardinia for whom Garibaldi had fought before, had been able to capture Rome. He marched south to join Garibaldi at Naples, and there he was declared king of United Italy. Garibaldi lived until 1882 in the Italy he had helped to free.

Like Bolivar, the other 'Liberator' of whom we read in the privious lesson, Garibaldi and Mazzini were patriots who gave everything they had to the cause of freeing their people from oppression. They cared nothing for any other reward. But, unlike Bolivar, they enjoyed the happiness of seeing their efforts succeed.

EXERCISES

1. What did the Congress of Vienna decide?
2. What did Garibaldi do for Italy?
3. Find out the names of some of the most famous Italian cities and what they are noted for.

LESSON 32: KARL MARX AND HIS IDEAS

[Key-Question 63: *What is capital? What is its use?*]

§63. Karl Marx was a German, but he was driven out of Germany because the German king did not like his ideas. He wrote most of his books in London.

Marx lived from 1818 to 1883, just at the time when new factories were being built in all western countries and when the Industrial Revolution was at its height. In his famous book, *Capital*, he showed clearly the changes likely to take place in the life of the people as a result of the factory system and the Industrial Revolution. Some of those changes had already begun, especially the killing of smaller industries through the starting of great factories.

Suppose you have a small cotton-mill of which you yourself are the manager. You find that you cannot make cloth as cheaply as the big factories because you do not make it in such large quantities. So you decide to make it into a *company* and to have a bigger factory. To get the money to build the factory you have to ask other people to join you and to take 'shares' in the company. They will pay a certain amount of money for each share they buy. With that money you will be able to build a larger factory and get better machinery, and so earn more profits. But the people who paid for shares will expect to get part of the profits. Though they have not done any work, it was their money you used, and they want to get *interest* on it. When



KARL MARX

the business grows bigger, you will probably find it easier to employ managers and experts, and pay them a salary for their work, instead of trying to do it yourself. This is how, in a big business, it usually happens that the share-holders—the people who *own* the business—do not actually do any work in it. If a man possesses many shares in many different companies, each of which gives him a part of its profits (called 'dividends') it is quite possible for him to live without doing any work at all. In the same way, a big landowner can get money by renting out his land to small farmers, or to people who want to build houses, or to a company that wants to build a factory or a railway. The name which we give to this stored-up wealth, by which people can earn more wealth, is *capital*. Capital means *stored-up wealth in any form*. It may be money which you can use to buy shares on which you will get a dividend; or it may be the factory or the houses which you possess; or land which you have and from which you can earn money, either by cultivating it or renting it out to others.

[Key-Question 64: *What changes did Marx expect as a result of the Industrial Revolution?*]

§64. Karl Marx pointed out in his book that the growth of the factory-system and the competition between the producers of goods was certain to make people get divided more and more into two classes: (i) those who possess *capital* by which they can live without working; and (ii) those whose only possession is their ability to *work* and earn a living. We may call the former the *capitalist class*, and the latter the *working class*. (Of course, a man who owns a factory or a piece of land, or some shares in a company or some money in the bank, and *also* works for his living, belongs partly to both classes.) This is certainly true, but Marx went much

further. He said that this division was bound to get worse and worse, the rich people becoming richer and richer, and the poor people poorer and more unhappy. Finally, Marx said, the poor will see that the only real cure is for the class of Workers to take away the capital of the class of Capitalists. The Capitalists, of course, will not give up their capital without a struggle, so there will be a violent revolution.

After the revolution, when the workers have taken all the capital from the rich, what are they to do with it? Are they to share it out among themselves, and all become small capitalists, and begin the same process all over again? No, said Marx: the *Government* of the country must be the owner of all the capital (land, mines, factories, houses, and so on). The Government must pay wages to the workers to carry on all the necessary work, just as it now pays wages and salaries to civil servants, judges, policemen, soldiers and post office employees. And because everyone will have to work for his living (since no one will possess capital on which to live without working), it will be possible for everyone to earn enough to live on decently. This, in the simplest form, is the system known as *Socialism*, about which Karl Marx wrote. It is called Socialism because in this system the whole body, or *Society* of people living in a country, possesses the capital, and not seperate capitalists. It is also sometimes called *Communism*, which means that capital is owned in *common*, that is, together. The chief difference between Socialists and Communists is that Socialists believe that this system can be brought about slowly, through people voting for socialist members of Parliament; and, when there are enough such members by Parliament setting up a Socialist Government. Communists believe that the change will never come about in that way, but only by a violent revolution, such as occurred

in Russia in 1917. Communism is also sometimes called Bolshevism because the Russian Communists, led by Lenin, were called Bolsheviks.

The year 1848 was famous for attempts in several countries to set up a Socialist system. In France, Italy, Austria, south Germany and Hungary, there were such attempts : but in each country they were crushed after a short time. The struggle lasted longer in France than elsewhere, but in the end the Communists were put down with great severity, about ten thousand people being killed in Paris—even more than in the Reign of Terror in 1793-5.

In spite of this, however, the ideas of Marx went on spreading. Some people think they are good : some think they are bad. So it is very important that you should study both sides of the question and be able to decide for yourself, when you are older.

EXERCISES

1. The period between 1770 and 1870 might be called a century of revolutions. Explain why ?
2. What new problems were created by the Industrial Revolution, and how did Marx think they must be solved ?
3. Is it possible to solve the problem of the rich versus the poor, without a violent revolution ? What other solution can you suggest ? Give reasons for your answer.

10

The New Militant Nations

LESSON 33 : THE MAKING OF GERMANY

[Key-Question 65 : *What are the different kinds of nationalism, and how did they begin ?*]

§65. In Lesson 9 we saw how the feeling of ' nationalism was rapidly developed in some of the countries of Europe. We saw how this came about in France, England, Switzerland, Russia, Spain and the countries of north-western Europe. We

learned, also, why Italy and Germany lagged behind. In Lesson 31 we saw how Italy did not achieve national unity until, under the leadership of Mazzini and Garibaldi, her people had been awakened to feel the need of it—not for defence against outside enemies, but to resist the rule of despot dukes and kings. The nationalism of Italy was not the same, therefore, as the old '*defensive nationalism*' of France, Spain, England, Russia and Holland. Nationalism in Italy began as '*revolutionary nationalism*' following the example of the North American colonists, the French Revolution, the South Americans, and the Greeks. As soon as it had gained its object—national unity and freedom from despot rule—it ceased to be revolutionary. In the study of the history of revolutionary movements, we often see this happening. For, when people feel that they have secured a certain amount of freedom, most of them want to settle down and enjoy it in peace. They become conservative (that is, content with things as they are) and the revolutionary spirit only begins to grow again if bad conditions return. Some parts of the world, such as India, Indonesia, Iraq, Syria and Egypt, have just passed or are still passing through the stage of revolutionary nationalism, and you will be able to see, in your own lifetime, whether this comes true in their cases.

You may have noticed, however, that up to now we have had very little to say about one of the greatest of modern nations, Germany, and practically nothing at all about another, Japan. That is because their nationalism was of still later growth than that of the other nations, and was of yet another kind. We might call this third kind of nationalism by the name of '*militant nationalism*'. That is the idea that the people of your own nation are superior to all others and that your nation, therefore, has a *right* to conquer as many others

as possible. Of course, you find some people in every country who feel like that. But when you have a large group of people with those ideas, and when they control the government of the country, then you are likely to get a 'militant' nation, that is, a nation of people eager to fight. As you know, one of the greatest dangers to the whole world in your own time has been that the powerful rulers of at least three nations—Germany, Japan and Italy—had these ideas of 'militant nationalism'.

Now we shall see how the first two of those militant nations arose.

[Key-Question 66: *How did Germany become a united nation?*]

§66. The creation of Germany as a nation was almost entirely due to a soldier-statesman named OTTO VON BISMARCK.



BISMARCK

A hundred years ago there was no Germany as we know it today: it consisted of a number of small independent States, the chief of which was Prussia, the State through whose help William Pitt had defeated the French a hundred years earlier (see Lesson 15). Prussia has always had a large class of big landlords, proud and warlike people, rather like the *Kshatriya* caste of India: they are known as the *Junkers*.[1] Bismarck belonged to this class. In 1862 he became the chief minister of the King of Prussia. The first thing he did was to enforce 'conscription' (which means com-

1 Pronounced 'yoong-kers'.

pelling every able-bodied man to be trained as a soldier). In a few years Prussia had the best-trained army in the whole of Europe, and Bismarck was then ready for his next step. He declared war on Austria, which till then had been considered the leader of the German States. In three weeks he completely defeated the Austrians. In the peace terms he forced them to agree not to interfere in German affairs any more, to acknowledge Prussia as the chief of the German States, and to let Prussia annex (that is, take by force) several of the smaller German States.

France was at this time again under the rule of a king, Napoleon III, a descendant of Napoleon Bonaparte. This Napoleon thought that he could prove himself as great a soldier as his ancestor, Bonaparte. He did not like the idea of Prussia becoming stronger, so he declared war. This was just what Bismarck wanted. Till then, the German states had never united as a nation ; they had never been through the stage of defensive nationalism. But now they united under the lead of Prussia, to resist France. The French army was no longer an army such as Napoleon Bonaparte had led. It was badly defeated by the Prussians at Sedan on the French frontier, and Napoleon himself was taken prisoner. Paris was besieged and forced to surrender. The French suffered a terrible defeat. They were compelled not only to give up some of their territory, the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine which adjoin the river Rhine, but the Germans also made them pay a huge sum of money as 'reparations' (i.e. to pay for the cost of the war). The important result of this war was that the German States which had united for the war dicided to unite permanently, and the king of Prussia was crowned as German Emperor, in January 1871. Bismarck's work was complete. For the next forty years Germany made marvellous progress

in all directions : in trade, industry, invention, education and military strength. But the French were waiting for their chance to get back the lost provinces, and to make Germany suffer and pay as he had made them. That chance did not come until fifty years later, after the World War of 1914-18 of which we shall learn in the next book, *The Struggle of Democracy*.

LESSON 34 : THE DEVELOPMENT OF JAPAN

[Key-Question 67 : *How was Japan compelled to come into contact with western nations ?*]

§67. The story of Japan is very different from that of Germany. Till 1840 China and Japan existed almost entirely apart from the western world. They lived their own highly civilized life in their own way, under Grand Monarchs of their own. They developed extraordinary skill in certain things, such as the arts of painting, pottery, silk-manufacture and embroidery, for all of which they are still famous. But they wanted to have as little to do with other people as possible. It was with great difficulty that Europeans even managed to carry on a little trade with them, in articles such as silk and tea. Then in 1840 some of the European nations forced the Chinese to open several of their ports to foreign ships, and even to give up some of their territory for the settlement of European traders, such as Hong Kong for the British, Kiao-chau for the Germans, and Port Arthur for the Russians.

About this time the United States of America had spread westward, right across the North American continent to the Pacific coast, and San Francisco was becoming an important port. Trade with China was beginning to develop, but it was a long journey from California to the Chinese ports without a stopping place on the way. Japan seemed to be most conveniently situated for that purpose, so in 1853 four American

warships arrived with a letter from the President of the U.S.A. to the ruler of Japan. The President requested that Americans should be allowed to trade with the Japanese, and that certain harbours should be opened to their ships for that purpose. No reply was given; so the American admiral departed with his ships, leaving a message that he would return later for an answer. The government of Japan was greatly disturbed. It was the first time that such extraordinary ships, pouring out black smoke from huge pipes projecting upwards from their midst, had been seen. Great guns, too, were observed pointing from the ships towards the shore. There was talk of trying to drive them away if they should return, but this idea was soon given up as hopeless. And they did return; not four such ships, but ten, early the next year. The Japanese government decided to grant the American request, and a treaty was made.

This was the first step towards bringing Japan into contact with the modern world. Others soon followed. Similar trade treaties were made with the British, the Russians, and the Dutch; a little later with the French also.

[Key-Question 68 : *In what ways has the development of Japan been different from that of other nations?*]

§68. In the meantime great changes began to take place inside Japan. For nearly seven hundred years the government had been carried on, not by the emperor, but by a sort of hereditary prime minister known as the Shogun (a system very similar to that of Nepal until recently). The Shogun was now forced to give up his power, and in 1867 the young emperor Mutsuhito, then a boy of only 14 years, began the period of Japan's history which is known as the ' Meiji ', ' the period of enlightened rule ', which lasted until his death in 1912. It was a period of swift change from the most completely conservative

ways to the most completely modern, a change such as no nation has ever before undergone in such a short time. The old feudal system was abolished, the nobility were made to pay taxes like everyone else, and to do compulsory military service. Railways and factories were constructed ; posts, telegraphs, and steamships introduced. Even European dress was ordered to be worn by officials ! In a period of 40 years Japan was changed from being one of the most old-fashioned of countries, to one of the most up-to-date.

Only in its method of government (and perhaps also in its art and some of its manners and customs) Japan remained different from the western nations which it took as the models for its reconstruction. Japan set up a Parliament and a Cabinet, but neither of these had the power that Parliaments and Cabinets have in modern democracies. Nor was the emperor a Grand Monarch or a Dictator. He was treated more like a god, for he received such reverence from his people as only a god might be expected to receive. The ministers who did the real work of ruling issued all orders in the emperor's name. But the emperor himself took no part in ordinary affairs, and was hardly ever seen or heard by his people. The Japanese throne has been occupied by an unbroken line of kings for a longer period of time than any other in the world. For no less than 2,000 years members of the same royal family have ruled Japan, and the tradition is that their family is descended from the greatest monarch in the whole universe, the Sun.

It is possible that the swiftness of change which was forced upon the Japanese, since the beginning of the Meiji era less than 80 years ago, has not been altogether good. The Japanese learned all the lessons that the west could teach them. In almost every way they tried to go further than their teachers.

They are a marvellous people, but they have shown much cruelty in trying to get whatever they wanted.

EXERCISES

1. Why did Germany become a united nation so long after the others, and how did she reach such a powerful position so quickly?
2. In what ways is Japan quite different from most of the other modern nations?
3. Read about Japan in an encyclopedia, and write something about the cleverness of the Japanese.

11

The New Ideas of Science

LESSON 35: THE INTELLECTUAL REVOLUTION

[Key-Question 69: *Why is the development of 'curiosity' necessary for progress?*]

§69. The clearest sign of a growing intelligence is an increase of the quality which we call *curiosity*. It is a quality by which you can distinguish the more intelligent animals from the less intelligent. I am sure you have observed how animals such as dogs, cats and elephants are attracted by some unfamiliar movement, or place, or person, and go sniffing or poking about to try to find out what it is. And in the case of mankind 'curiosity' is also a sign of intellectual growth. A baby learns almost everything by looking at what is going on around it, and by making experiments, moving its arms and legs, putting things into its mouth, and so on. You must have noticed, too, that those boys and girls who are always asking '*why?*' or '*how?*' are usually the ones who learn quickly.

Throughout history there have always been men and women who were not content to know only what they were told: they wanted to find out more; they wanted to try *experiments* and to see if things could be done in a different way, a better way

Without this curiosity, this desire to experiment and to know more, there would be no progress. People would simply go on thinking the same thoughts, having the same ideas, as their forefathers; there would be no change.

The people who want to think differently, and to act differently, are therefore very important people. But they are nearly always the people who get into trouble! Why? It is because there is another quality in all of us, which fights against our curiosity. That is the quality of laziness, *inertia* or the desire to go on doing things (or not doing them) in the ways to which we have become accustomed. As we get older, we form habits—habits of thought, as well as habits of action—and it is a nuisance to have to change them. So we persuade ourselves that it is wrong to change; and when someone comes along with different ideas, we do not like it. This is called 'conservatism'—that is, the desire to keep things as they are, to 'conserve'.

Unfortunately the struggle between 'curiosity' and 'conservatism' often becomes very bitter, and it has led to intolerance and persecution. The people who want to change are impatient with those who do not want to: they attack the old ways of thought and action. This makes the 'conservatives' angry, and they try to stop the 'reformers', possibly by putting them in prison, or even killing them (as at the time of the Reformation—see Lessons 7 and 8.) But history proves that such attempts to check curiosity and to stop changes from taking place have never been successful in the long run. It is fortunate for mankind that this is so. Otherwise, we should still be living exactly as our forefathers lived; or perhaps mankind would never have developed on the earth at all. It is useful to remember this when we are tempted to be intolerant towards people who think differently from ourselves!

[Key-Question 70: *In what periods of history has curiosity been prominent? Give examples of it.*]

§70. There seem to have been two or three periods in the history of mankind when curiosity was particularly strong, or conditions were particularly favourable for the growth of men and women who wanted to find out more about themselves and the world in which they lived.

One of those periods was the time when Gautama Buddha lived in India, Socrates in Greece, and Confucius in China, between the year 500 B.C. and the birth of Jesus Christ. Within this period of 500 years a very large number of great thinkers lived in different parts of the civilized world. Another such period began about A.D. 1200. This was the time of the great Arab scholars, doctors of medicine, and mathematicians in Baghdad, Cairo, and in Spain. Roger Bacon lived just after this time, and Leonardo da Vinci a little later (see Lesson 6).

The third such period seems to have begun about A.D. 1700, and we may call it *The Intellectual Revolution.*

There were signs of the beginning of this Intellectual Revolution even before 1700. For example, the great astronomer, Galileo, and the great scientist, Sir Francis Bacon, were at work in 1600; in 1628 DR WILLIAM HARVEY, the physician of King Charles I of England, published a book in which he showed how the blood circulates in the human body. (It is interesting to remember that the Chinese knew this, but the knowledge never reached the west.) About 1700 the English mathematician, SIR ISAAC NEWTON, put forward his theory of the Laws of Gravitation, explaining why objects fall to the ground, and how. Not long after Newton's time a French scientist, LAMARCK, spent his life in the study of the growth of plants and animals. He put forward the theory that organs

were gradually developed or changed to suit the conditions in which living creatures have to exist. All these great discoveries show that men were beginning to make careful observations and scientific experiments, in order to find out the 'how' and the 'why' of the things that go on around us. But the most famous of the answers to the 'hows' and the 'whys' of man's curiosity was the one given in the year 1859 by CHARLES DARWIN in his book *The Origin of Species.*

EXERCISES

1. Why is 'curiosity' an important quality?
2. Mention the three periods when 'curiosity' was very strong, and some of the great men who lived in each period.
3. What is 'conservatism'? How is it useful and how is it harmful?

LESSON: 36: DARWIN AND HIS IDEAS

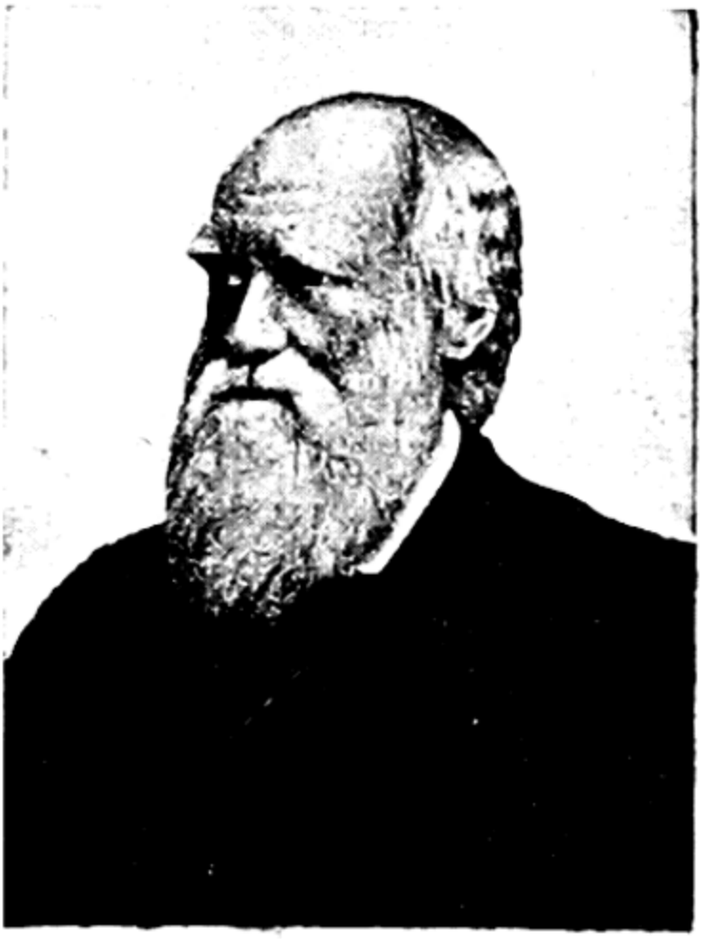
[Key-Question 71: *What did Darwin learn from his voyage on The Beagle?*]

§71. Darwin was born in 1809. He wanted to study chemistry, but no science was then taught in the schools. He had to be content with doing experiments in a little home-made laboratory which he and his brother fitted up in a shed in their garden. At school he was told that he should not waste his time on such things! Another hobby of which he was intensely fond was that of collecting—especially the collecting of different kinds of plants, shells, stones, and beetles.

In 1825 he was sent to Edinburgh University, to study for the medical profession, because his father and grandfather had both been doctors. After two years' study of medicine, he decided to give it up, and to work at the subjects which really interested him—botany[1] and zoology[2]. For this he went to Cambridge University in 1828. Then in 1831 he got the opportunity which proved to be the turning-point in

[1] The study of plants. [2] The study of animals.

his life. The British Government wanted to have correct information about the coastlines and the harbours suitable for shipping, etc., in South America, and on the islands of the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans. For this they fitted out a ship called *The Beagle*, on which the necessary observers, with their instruments, were to travel. Through the help of his botany professor at Cambridge, Darwin got the post of zoologist in this expedition. He spent five years in travelling from place to place all round the globe in *The Beagle*, making careful observations of the minerals, plants and animals of the different countries and islands visited. It was no doubt the collection of facts gathered during this period which enabled him to work out, in the years following his return from the voyage, the theory for which his name has become known all over the world—the theory of *Natural Selection*.



CHARLES DARWIN

[Key-Question 72 : *What was Darwin's theory of Natural Selection and why did it upset many people ?*]

§72. Darwin's theory, which is sometimes termed the theory of 'the survival of the fittest', is often not quite clearly understood. As it is of great importance in the development of modern scientific thought, we shall try to state it briefly here.

Darwin's idea was to explain 'the origin of species'; i.e. how the many kinds of living creatures had come into existence in their present forms.

His observations, of the different kinds of plants and animals studied during his travels, led him to think that the species now found on the earth had gradually evolved from earlier types. He suggested that this took place partly by means of a process which he called 'natural selection'. Let us take an example of this from one of the beetles about which Darwin tells us in his book. On the island of Madeira, out of 550 different species of beetles, 200 species have such feeble wings that they cannot fly, and many of the common species of flying beetles are not found at all. Darwin's explanation of this is that, as the wind is very strong in Madeira, the beetles which could fly were quickly blown out to sea and drowned, whereas those which lived mostly on the ground, multiplied. The natural conditions in Madeira thus favoured the increase of non-flying beetles and disappearance of the flying species. By the process of 'natural selection' the non-flying ones survived, as they were the fittest to do so, in these particular conditions.

This process of 'natural selection' was not the only one which Darwin brought forward as an explanation of the changes that have slowly taken place in the course of evolution, but it is perhaps the most famous, and one of the easiest to understand. In a later book, entitled *The Descent of Man*, Darwin applied his theories to the evolution of human beings. The human species, as well as certain species of apes, he said, must have descended from a common monkey-like ancestor. Man developed his larger brain, his upright carriage, his superior hands, etc., by the process of natural selection. The apes and monkeys, however, retained their hand-like feet,

longer arms, and fruit-eating habits as being more advantageous for life in the tree-tops.

The idea of evolution put forward by Darwin in his book, and supported by other great scientists, such as Lyell[1] and Huxley[2], was very shocking to the orthodox people of the time. It seemed completely contrary to the story of creation told in the Bible, and they feared that if the teachings of the Bible were proved to be wrong on one point, it would lead to the collapse of the whole of the Christian religion. This fear, of course, proved unfounded, because the real basis of Christianity, and of every religion, is the life of its Founder and the influence exerted on men and women through his example and that of his followers. But during Darwin's lifetime, and even until recent times the followers of the orthodox religion believed scientists to be their most dangerous enemies.

The work done at the time of the Intellectual Revolution was that of *Pure* Science—the development of new *ideas* from observations and experiments—rather than that of *Applied* Science, the invention of new ways of *doing* things, new substances, new machines. But the latter is impossible without the former. This is one of the chief differences between the period of the Intellectual Revolution and the two earlier periods of 'curiosity', mentioned in Lesson 35. Very few of the discoveries of the earlier scientists were *applied* for the benefit of mankind. But the discoveries (or re-discoveries) which the scientists of the nineteenth century made, and which those of the twentieth century are still making in every direction, have within a very short time borne fruit in all sorts of useful applications to our daily life.

[1] A great geologist (i.e. one who studies rocks).

[2] A great zoologist (i.e. one who studies animals).

Some of those applications we shall study in the lessons which follow.

EXERCISES

1. State briefly Darwin's theory of natural selection, and give some examples of its working.
2. Why was Darwin's work opposed by many sincere believers in the Christian religion?
3. Borrow a copy of Darwin's *The Origin of Species*, or of Huxley's *Essays*, and read what is written there about the effects of use and disuse on the development of the organs of the bodies of living creatures.

12

Science Applied to Daily Life

LESSON 37:

THE CENTURY OF SPEED AND ELECTRICITY

[Key-Question 73: *Why have machines up to the present brought much misery to mankind, with some benefits?*]

§73. We might call the Nineteenth Century—the hundred years between 1801-1900—*the Century of Coal and Steam*, and the Twentieth Century, *the Century of Speed and Electricity*.

Without coal and iron, the great variety of new machines which caused the Industrial Revolution could never have been created. The machines themselves could never have been made to work so smoothly and continuously and accurately, without the many new tools made of strong steel. Iron bridges, steam-engines, and steamships could never have come into existence.

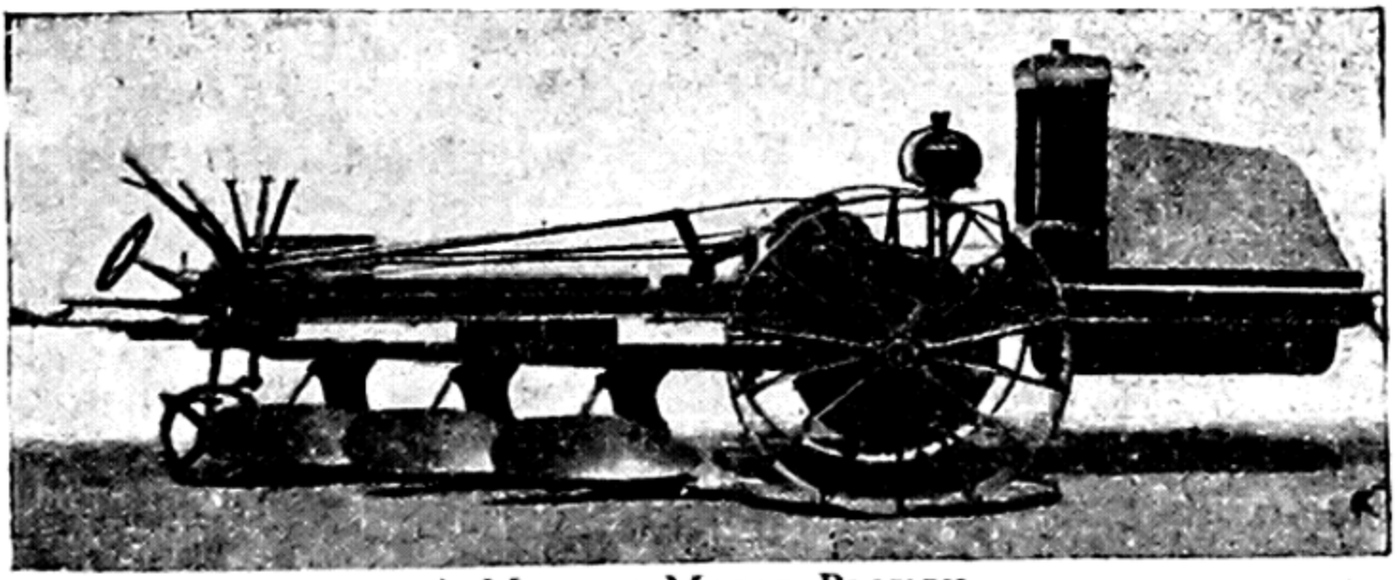
Although the Industrial Revolution brought much misery to many poor people, yet it also brought new possibilities of making everyone's life more comfortable and convenient. As long as the new machines were used merely to do the same work that many men used to do, they brought misery, because they took work away from many people and left them starving.

But it soon became clear that if machines were used for getting work done more easily and more quickly, all people would



PLOUGHING IN THE MIDDLE AGES

have more free time for leisure, culture, and recreation. Man has not succeeded yet in making machines his servants; he is not yet the master of his machines. But two centuries is not a very long time compared with the whole period of time since Man first began to be civilized—about 10,000 years ago.



A MODERN MOTOR PLOUGH

There is no doubt that Man *will* master the machines he has made before the twentieth century comes to an end; and fifty years hence the lives of all men and women everywhere will be much less toilsome, and there will be less poverty. A world-

wide attempt to obtain the Fourth Freedom—freedom from want—has already begun.

There is another point to be noted here. From the time of the Age of Discovery (Lesson 5) and of the New Learning (Lesson 6) up to the beginning of the Century of Coal and Steam, about three hundred years went by. But from the time when machines came into common use until the Century of Speed and Electricity (our own time) hardly one hundred years have yet passed. The speed of change is becoming much swifter.

We shall now take a quick glance at some of the most important inventions which men made in the Century of Speed and Electricity. We have already studied those of the Century of Coal and Steam in Lessons 21, 22, 23, 24 and 25.

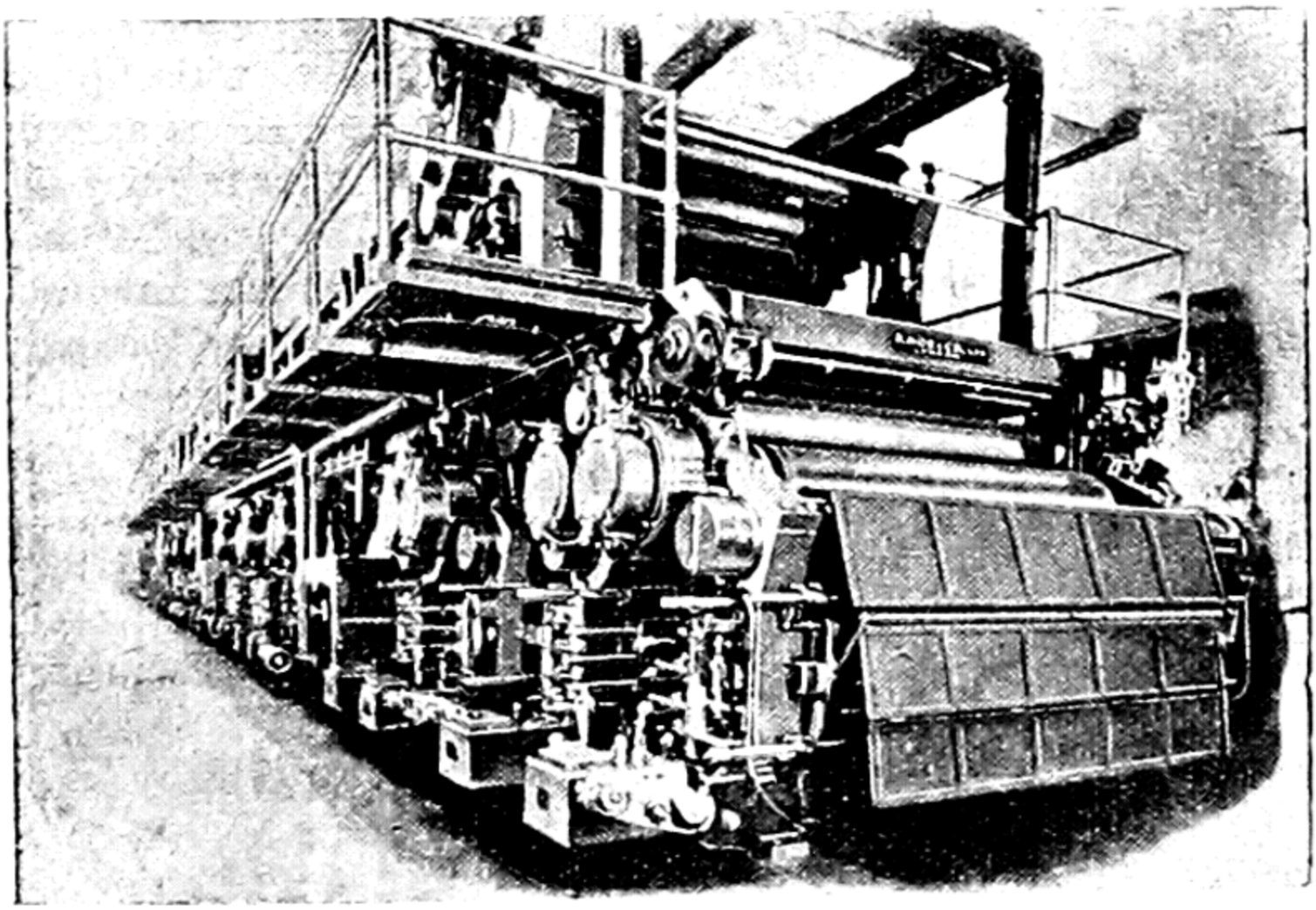
[Key-Question 74 : *When were newspapers first started? How did the Post Office develop?*]

§74. One of the most important changes was the improvement in ways of spreading news. In olden times there were no newspapers, and whatever men thought or did in one place was known in other places only after months or even years, because news had to be written down by hand, or carried by the spoken word.

There were announcements of news, put up on notice-boards, in ancient Rome, and in China. But the first real printed newspaper appeared in Germany in 1609. Then followed one in Holland. The first newspaper in England appeared in 1622; and soon after this, in 1631, the *Gazette of France* came out. In 1641 a Spanish South American newspaper appeared. The first North American newspaper, *The Boston Newsletter*, came out in 1704. In India, the *Bengal Gazette* began publication in 1780. The famous *Times* of London was first published in 1785. The first daily news-

paper published at such a low price that everybody could buy it--for only a halfpenny—was *The Daily Mail* of London, a century later, in 1896. We shall see in the next book of this series (*The Struggle of Democracy* dealing with the twentieth century) how the power of the Press increased from 1900 to the present time.

Another very important means of spreading news and information was by means of the Post Office. There were postal



A MODERN ROTARY MACHINE USED FOR PRINTING NEWSPAPERS

services in ancient days as long ago as the times of Cyrus, king of Persia, Alexander the Great of Macedon, and Augustus Cæsar, the Roman Emperor. In Western Europe the first postal service started in France, in 1464. The first English Post Office was started by Oliver Cromwell in 1657. But under all these systems it cost a good deal to send a letter, and the cost

depended on how far the letter had to go. It was in Paris in the time of King Louis XIV, that the first cheap postal service was started. A letter could be sent from any part of Paris city to any other part for one *sou* (about half an anna). But the greatest improvement of all was made by Rowland Hill, an English schoolmaster, who proposed that letters should be sent from any part of England to any other for one penny (1 anna). This was agreed to by Parliament in 1840. The final step was taken in 1875 when the International Postal Union was formed by all the nations of Europe, with Egypt and the United States of America. All these nations agreed that they would carry the letters of every other member of the Union at a uniform rate, depending on the weight of the letter, just as is done in India now. The minimum rate for letters to *any* country in the Postal Union was about 2½ annas for a letter weighing about 5 tolas. That is cheaper than the present cost of sending a letter from one part of India to another. We have to pay 6 annas now for a letter in a sealed envelope weighing 5 tolas. This good arrangement caused the number of letters between the various countries of the world to increase enormously, and almost all nations are now members of the Postal Union. This International Postal Union is a splendid example of how the nations of the world *can* join together for the good of all, when they really want to do so.

From this you see how the speed and ease of sending news all over the world was increased in the nineteenth century, the Century of Speed. As we have already seen, the increase of speed was made possible at first mainly by the use of the steam-engine to make machines go fast and continuously.

EXERCISES

1. How have men benefited from the Industrial Revolution, and how has it brought suffering and harm?
2. Why are newspapers important? In what ways can they do harm?
3. Mention the stages in the growth of the postal system.

LESSON 38 : GREAT INVENTIONS—TELEGRAPHY, TELEPHONY, PHOTOGRAPHY, THE BICYCLE

[Key-Question 75 : *Who discovered that lightning is a form of electricity? Who invented the telegraph and telephone?*]

§75. Now let us take a glance at the most important inventions of the nineteenth century in which electricity is used. The earliest great discoveries about electricity were those of an American, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN. It was in 1752 that he made the dangerous experiments which proved that the lightning which flashes from the clouds is a form of the great invisible force of electricity.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN



ELECTRICITY FROM THE CLOUDS

Franklin proved this by sending a kite up into the air during a thunderstorm. A piece of metal was tied to the string of the kite, and Franklin found that electricity from the storm-cloud came down the string and charged a battery.

But it was only after nearly a hundred years that this great new power began to be used for the service of Man. It was used for sending messages by *telegraph* (which means 'writing at a distance'). In 1837

the first message was sent along a wire by electricity by the inventor of the telegraph, WILLIAM COOKE, a British officer in the East India Company's army at Madras, who had gone to England on leave. George Stephenson, the great builder of railways, was among those who saw Cooke's first successful experiment in telegraphy. Soon afterwards, telegraph-wires were used for sending messages for the Great Western Railway of England.

Almost at the same time another invention was made, which helped telegraphy a great deal. This was the invention of the Morse Code, by SAMUEL MORSE, an American. If you are a Boy Scout, you are sure to know what Morse Code is. By 1845 telegraph messages in Morse Code were being sent in America.

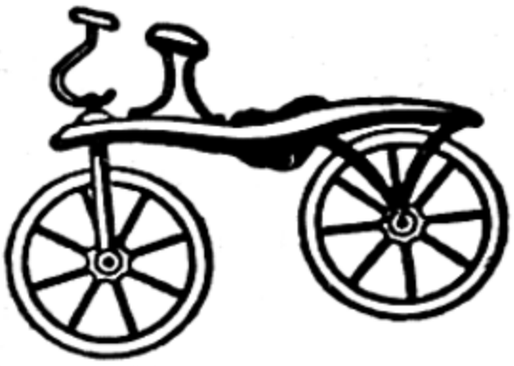
Much later, in 1876, the telephone was invented by a Scotsman who lived in the U.S.A., ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL, a teacher. But Bell was not an ordinary teacher, he was a teacher of people who were deaf and dumb. By trying to help his deaf pupils Bell had learned a great deal about the way in which sound affects the human ear. He did not know much about electricity, but he suddenly got the idea that sound might perhaps be sent along a wire by electricity. He tried many experiments with the help of his friend Watson, but without much success. Then, one day, when they had fixed up their wires from the bottom floor of their house to the topmost floor, Bell sent Watson to the other end of the wire. A few moments afterwards, Watson in the basement of the house clearly heard Bell, at the very top, say: 'Watson, come here: I want you.' The telephone had been invented. Within a few years telephones were being used in great cities all over the world.

We shall not learn in this book about all the other useful purposes to which electricity has been put, for they are all

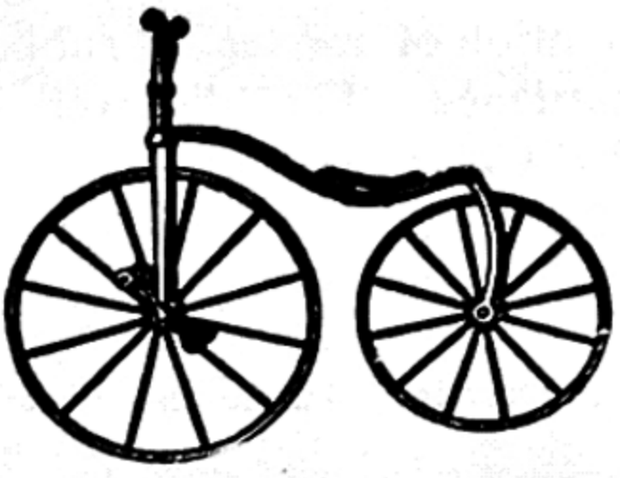
inventions made in the twentieth century, and we shall hear of them in our next book, *The Struggle of Democracy* which deals with the history of man's progress from 1900 to the present time.

[Key-Question 76 : *Who were the inventors and improvers of photography and the bicycle?*]

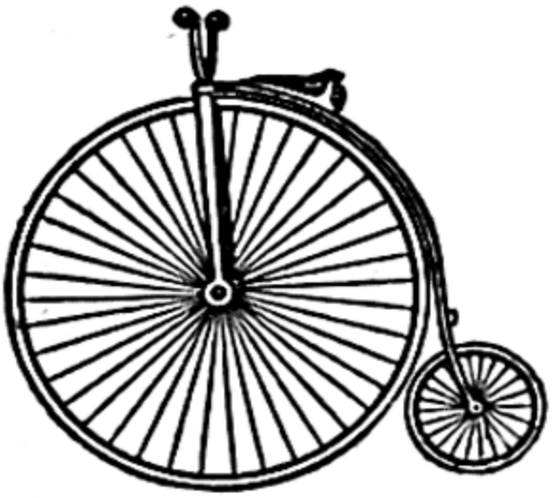
§76. We must mention some other inventions which have helped mankind a great deal. PHOTOGRAPHY was first invented by the Englishman THOMAS WEDGWOOD in 1802, and greatly improved by the Frenchman, DAGUERRE, in 1838. The film-camera which we use nowadays was invented in 1389 by GEORGE EASTMAN, an American, who founded the famous 'Eastman-Kodak' Company.



(i) HOBBY-HORSE



(ii) BONE-SHAKER



(iii) PENNY-FARTHING

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE BICYCLE

The *bicycle* went through several stages of development before modern bicycles were made. First, about 1816, there

was the 'hobby-horse'—a French invention which was moved along by pushing with the feet on the ground. In 1840 came the first bicycle driven by pedals. This was made by MCMILLAN, a Scot. It was called the 'dandy-horse'. In 1865 came the 'velocipede', invented by a Frenchman. It was also known as the 'bone-shaker'! About 1870 came the 'penny-farthing', so called because there was a very large wheel at the front, with a small one at the back, like a penny placed next to a farthing (a very small coin like a 'pie'). This was a very dangerous machine to ride, for, if one stopped suddenly, the small wheel, and the rider, went over the top of the big wheel! About five years later, in 1876, an Englishman named LAWSON made the first bicycle of the modern type, with wheels of equal size, driven by pedals, cranks, chain and gear. This was manufactured by the Rover Company which still makes cycles, motor-cycles and cars.

Nowadays we cannot easily imagine what it would feel like to ride a bicycle with *solid* rubber tyres. But all bicycles were like that until 1889 when JOHN DUNLOP invented the pneumatic (air-filled) tyre. Dunlop tyres are still famous. But Dunlop could never have invented the pneumatic rubber tyre without an earlier invention, the invention of *vulcanized* rubber, that is, rubber which has been hardened. The discovery of how to do this was made in 1839 by CHARLES GOODYEAR, an American. He discovered it accidentally, by dropping on a hot stove some rubber which he had mixed with sulphur.

EXERCISES

1. Read more about Benjamin Franklin. Describe what he did towards the discovery of electricity.
2. Who invented and helped to improve telegraphy, telephony, and the bicycle?
3. What inventions were necessary to perfect the modern bicycle?

LESSON 39: MARVELLOUS MACHINES— THE REAPER, THE TYPEWRITER, THE LINOTYPE

[Key-Question 77: *Who invented the reaping machine, the typewriter and the linotype?*]

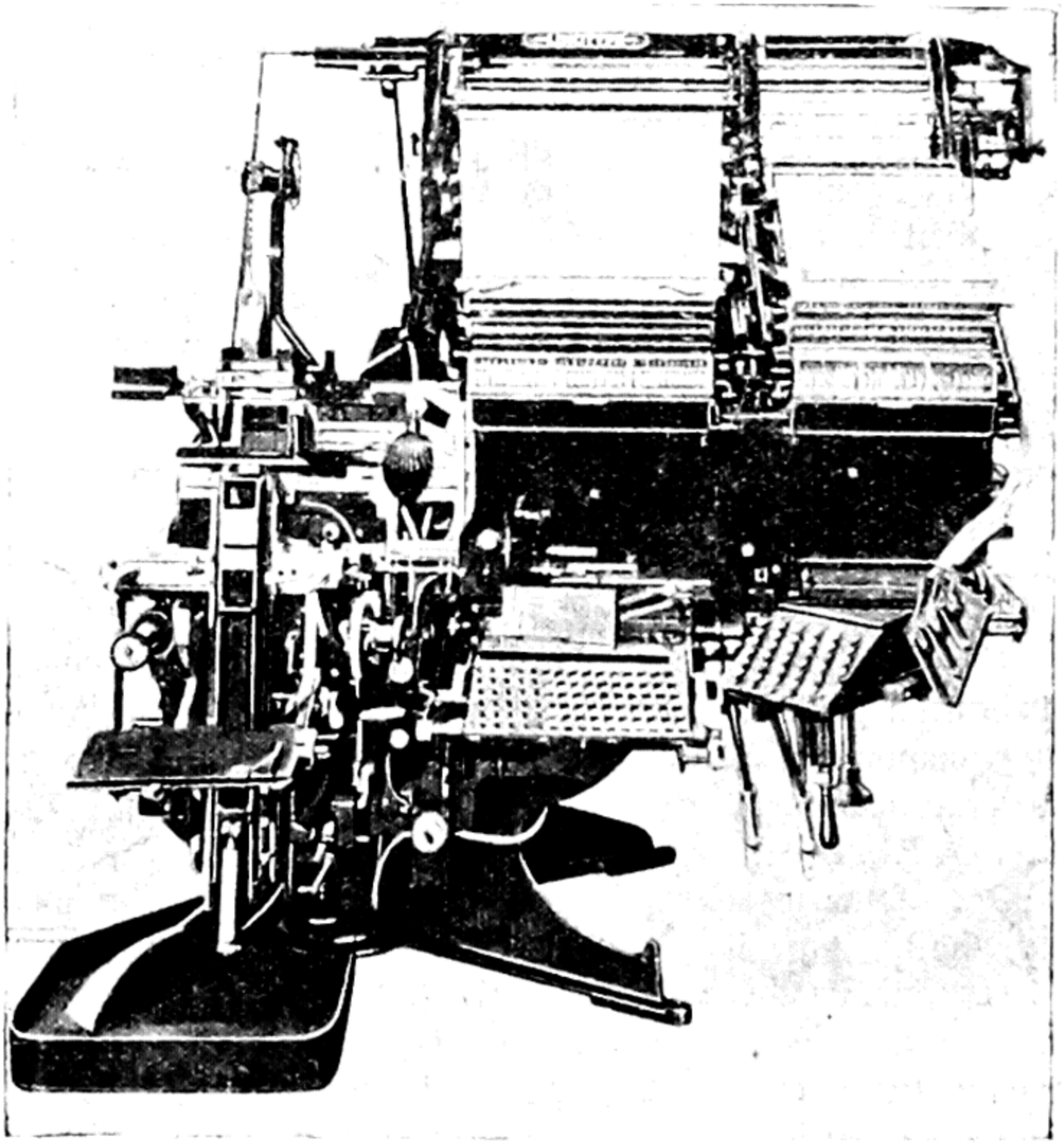
§77. An important invention for adding speed to agriculture was that of the reaping-machine, by which wheat and other grain-crops can be harvested a hundred times more quickly than men could do it by hand-labour. The reaping-machine was first invented by McCORMICK, an American, in 1831. Later, this machine was much improved, and nowadays a single machine can do all the work of cutting the corn, threshing it, putting the grain into bags, and tying up the straw into bundles. It is difficult to imagine how a single machine could be made to do more various kinds of work than this.

But another wonderful machine followed soon afterwards—the sewing-machine, invented by ELIAS HOWE, an American, in 1840.

The typewriter was first invented by a Frenchman named PROGIN in 1833, but it was not improved enough to bring it into common use until CHRISTOPHER SHOLES, an American, began to make typewriters of the modern kind in 1868. The famous Remington typewriter was first marketed in 1874.

One of the most marvellous of all machines made by man, was the Linotype, invented about 1886 by a German, MERGENTHALER, who had gone to live in the U.S.A. The Linotype is a printing machine operated like a typewriter but, instead of having letter-keys which strike on the paper, the keys release brass letters (which the printer calls 'matrixes') and fits them side by side in a holder until a whole line has been made. The brass letters, however, are not *raised* letters like ordinary printers' type, but are cut *into* brass. Melted lead is then forced

into the mould containing these lines of brass letters; and a whole 'line of type' is thus cast in lead (which is the origin of the word 'linotype'). This is then put into its proper place (by the same machine), and printed in the usual way by smearing



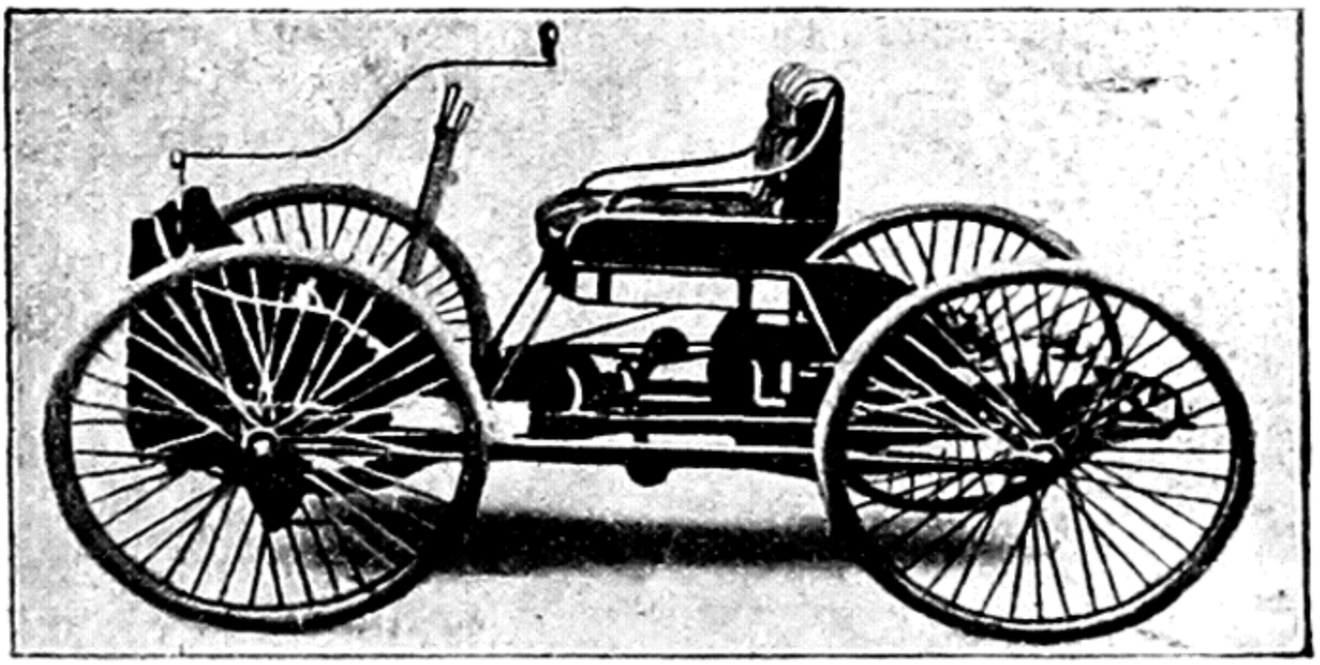
A Modern Linotype Machine

printers' ink on the face of the type. Thus the linotype can turn out material to be printed as fast as it can be typed. This marvellous machine made it possible to print news

papers quickly. (This book was 'composed' on a linotype machine.)

[Key-Question 78 : *What inventions do we owe to Edison? Who developed the petrol engine?*]

§78. We cannot leave the subject of great modern inventions of the nineteenth century without mention of the greatest of all inventors. THOMAS ALVA EDISON began inventing things about 1860 when he was only 14 years old, and continued to produce great inventions one after another until the day of his death in 1931. You have perhaps read about Edison's life in Section 40 of *The Struggle of Modern Man*, so we shall not repeat it here, except to say that it was Edison's improvements



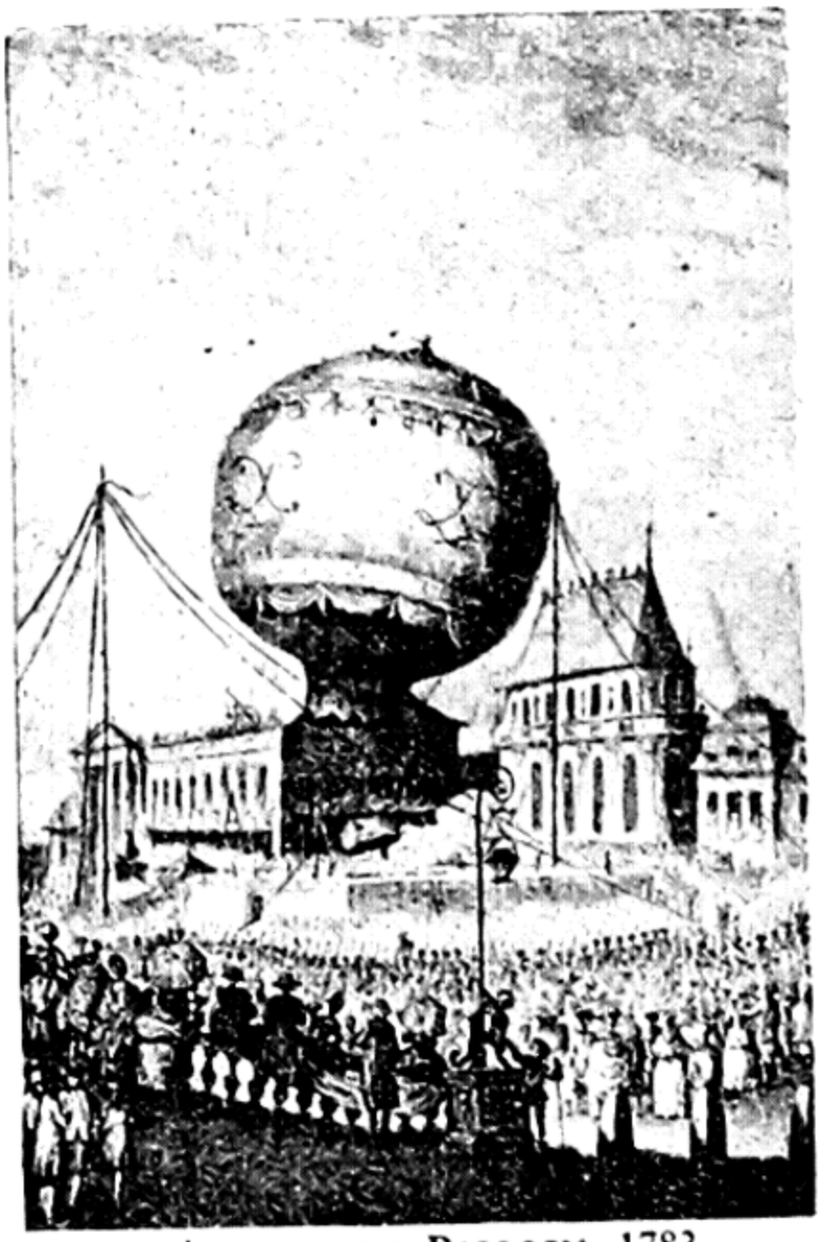
THE FIRST FORD CAR

of the telegraph that made it possible to use it all over the world. Edison also improved the telephone which Graham Bell had invented. He also made the first phonograph, which has developed into the modern gramophone. He then turned his attention to improving the electric light, and made the first reliable electric lamps in 1879. It was after this that electric lighting came into common use. Edison's other

famous inventions, such as the cinema, belong to the twentieth century and will be dealt with in our next book.

Another great man who began his work in the nineteenth century and went on with it in the twentieth, was MARCONI, the inventor of wireless telegraphy, or radio. Marconi sent the first wireless message from England to France in 1898.

Finally, we must learn something about the great inventions in improved ways of travel, begun in the nineteenth century and still being carried on. The most important is that of the petrol-driven engine, without which we could have neither motor-cars nor aeroplanes. At first, steam-engines were used to drive carriages on ordinary roads. But these were found to be too clumsy. It was the invention of the petrol-engine, which is small and light, that made motor-transport possible both on roads and in the air. The 'internal combustion' engine (i.e. an engine driven by an explosion which takes place inside it) is not the invention of any one man: many have helped to perfect it gradually. The first gas-engine was possibly constructed by an Englishman named STREET, in 1794. A much improved type was produced by



ASCENT OF A BALLOON, 1783

a French engineer, LENOIR, in 1860. In 1886, DAIMLER, a German, made the first really efficient petrol-engine, this was used to drive a motor-bicycle, and in the following year a motor-car. After the year 1890 the use of petrol-engines in motor-cars developed rapidly, particularly in Germany and France. Only then did it become possible to make a machine which could be driven through the air.

Experiments in gliding (i.e. floating through the air in a machine with no engine) had been made by English, French, German and American pioneers, as early as 1850. The greatest, of these was LILIENTHAL, a German. Two American brothers, ORVILLE and WILBUR WRIGHT, made successful glider-flights about 1900, and in 1903 they fitted a petrol-motor into a glider-plane and flew for 40 yards at the first attempt, and 270 yards in a subsequent one. The aeroplane had been invented!

EXERCISES

1. What work does a harvester 'combine' do? Who invented the first reaping-machine and when?
2. What is a linotype machine and how does it work?
3. What inventions were the work of Edison?

LESSON 40 : CO-OPERATION— ROBERT OWEN AND HIS IDEAS—TRADE UNIONS

[Key-Question 79 : *What is Co-operation? What great work was done by Robert Owen?*]

§79. We must end this story of nineteenth-century inventions by telling something about an invention, not of a machine, but of a system of buying and selling and doing daily work—the invention of *Co-operation.*

Co-operation means 'working together', and a co-operative society is a sort of company formed by a number of people who all want the same thing and who believe that they can get it more quickly and more cheaply by joining together in the

work, instead of each working separately. There are now Co-operative Societies for all kinds of purposes, but the most important are those for helping people to buy and sell things. If a large number of articles is purchased at the same time, they can always be bought at a cheaper rate than if only one or two are bought. A Co-operative Society, therefore, buys for its members things of a certain kind (for example, food-stuffs, cloth, and other articles which everyone needs) and sells them only to its members at the lowest possible price, instead of trying to make the largest possible profit by selling them at high rates. At the end of each year whatever profits the Society has made are divided among the members. Something of this kind is now being done in India to help farmers to buy seed, fertilizers and better farming tools. The same idea is carried out in the Soviet Russian system of 'Collective Farms.' But that system began only in the twentieth century.

The first Co-operative Societies were started by ROBERT OWEN in England in 1821. Owen became a rich man through his successful management of a cotton-mill in Lancashire. But instead of spending his money on himself, he bought an estate in Scotland and started a cotton-mill and other factories there, on a different plan. Owen's ideas were socialistic: you have aleady learned something about socialism in Lesson 32, so you will easily understand that Owen managed his estate and his factories not to get profit for himself alone, as most of the rich men of his time did, but to produce things for the benefit of all the workers on his estates, and to *share* the profits among all those who made them, according to the value of the work they did. Owen started co-operative societies of many kinds on the estate, where his workers could buy all they needed at the lowest rates. He built good houses for them to live in; he opened schools for their children and his own. He was the

first man in Britain to open an infant school, i.e. a school for very young children.

In addition to all the work he did on his own estate, Owen also tried to get Parliament to pass better laws to govern the employment of workers in factories. He tried to get the hours of work shortened, and to stop altogether the employment of children under the age of ten.

In 1825 Owen bought a big estate in the U.S.A. and started a socialist colony, named *New-Harmony*. It failed after a few years, but Owen's ideas have spread, and the great Co-operative Movement of modern times is mainly due to the unselfish example of this great man whose whole life was spent in trying to make others happy.

[Key-Question 80 : *What are Trade Unions and what is their use?*]

§80. Another form of co-operation began soon after Owen's time. This was the *Trade Union* movement. Trade Unions are societies formed by people who all do the same sort of work or trade. For example, there is the Railwaymen's Union, the Post Office Workers' Union, the Seamen's Union, the National Union of Teachers, and so on. The object of these unions is to enable the members to join together in making demands for better conditions of work and better wages, and to preserve their rights. If a single worker asks his employer to pay him higher wages, the employer may tell him to leave his job, and will get someone who will work for less money. But if *all* the workers in a particular trade or occupation threaten to stop work unless their demands are granted (which is called a ' strike '), the employers find it difficult to dismiss them, because all the work of their factories, railways, ships or schools would stop if there were no workers to run them.

Before 1824 it was against the law to form a Trade Union but the law was changed in that year, and since then many Trade Unions have been started.

EXERCISES

1. What is a Co-operative Society? What work does it do?
2. Write something about Robert Owen and his work.
3. What are Trade Unions and what do they do?

13
Imperialism and the Demand for Freedom

LESSON 41: THE UNDISCOVERED LANDS AND SEAS

[Key-Question 81: *Who were the greatest explorers of the Pacific Ocean, Northern Canada, and Central Africa?*]

§81. By the year 1850 very few parts of the globe remained unknown. All the great oceans had been explored, except the



CAPTAIN COOK LANDING ON A PACIFIC ISLAND

Arctic regions around the North Pole. In exploring unknown seas no man has ever done more than Captain JAMES COOK

of whom we read in Section 37 of *The Struggle of Modern Man*. Cook thoroughly explored nearly all parts of the vast Pacific Ocean, from the coast of Alaska in the north, to the very south, within the Antarctic Circle. In the western Pacific he visited New Zealand and Australia, which had been discovered more than 100 years before by the Dutch. In the east, he discovered Easter Island, and in the centre, Hawaii.



DEATH OF CAPTAIN COOK

Of the continents, no part of Europe remained unknown: Asia, too, had mostly been explored, except the northern ice-bound coast, and the great mountain ranges of India, Tibet, northern Burma and western China. North America, both Canada and the United States, had been explored from west to east; and by 1883 there were even railways from coast to coast. North Canada had been explored even earlier by MACKENZIE who discovered the great river that now bears his name. The

only part of South America still unknown was the inland region of the River Amazon. It is so unhealthy and so difficult to pass through, because of the dense equatorial forests, that even now some parts of it have never been explored.



LIVINGSTONE WELCOMED BY AN AFRICAN CHIEF, 1854

One of the greatest explorers of the interior of the African continent was MUNGO PARK, a Scotsman who discovered the River Niger in 1796. The great lake in Central Africa, which is the source of the River Nile, was discovered in 1858 by an English explorer named SPEKE. Several of the other great Central African lakes were discovered by DAVID LIVINGSTONE, of whom we read in Section 37 of *The Struggle of Modern Man*. Livingstone also discovered the great river Zambezi in 1851. The other great river of Africa, the Congo, was explored by H. M. STANLEY in 1876.

[Key-Question 82: *Who explored Central Australia and Antarctica?*]

§82. Two continents remained to be crossed—both in the far south—Australia, and the lofty ice-covered plateau of Antarctica. In 1828 the explorer CHARLES STUART reached the river Darling, and went far into the interior of Australia. He found it was a terrible desert, and returned from his travels blinded by the fierce glare of the sun upon the sand. The first attempt to cross that desert was made by a party led by two explorers, BURKE and WILLS. In 1860 they succeeded in crossing it from south to north ; but, on the return journey, four members of the party got lost in the desert, and after wandering about for more than two months without food, all died of starvation except one who was rescued by Australian aborigines.



ANTARCTIC ICE

Antarctica is a much larger continent than Australia, but it is empty, being entirely covered with ice. No animals live on the continent, and there are no trees. Most of the

continent is a high plateau, about 10,000 feet high, which makes it colder even than the region of the North Pole. Yet it has an active volcano on it, more than 13,000 feet high, named Mt Erebus.

The strangest thing about the Antarctic continent is that it is very difficult to reach beause it is entirely surrounded by frozen sea-water, which is not smooth and level like the ice of a frozen lake, but is full of little hills and valleys, caused by the movement of the sea-water underneath the ice. This 'pack-ice', as it is called, is extremely difficult to cross. Many explorers have reached the pack-ice, but very few were able to cross it and actually land on the continent. This was first done in 1894 by BORCHGREVINK, a young Norwegian who had made his home in Australia. The most famous explorations of Antarctica were not made until the twentieth century, when the Norwegian, AMUNDSEN, and the Englishman, CAPTAIN SCOTT, actually reached the South Pole. We shall tell their story in our next book.

EXERCISES

1. Who discovered Easter Island, the River Niger, the source of the River Nile, the Victoria Falls?
2. Why is the exploration of the Antarctic Continent so difficult?
3. Read about the journey of Burke and Wills in the Australian desert, and describe what happened to them.

LESSON 42: IMPERIALISM

[Key-Question 83: *What is 'imperialism' and what caused it to develop?*]

§83. Through the discoveries and explorations of men such as Captain Cook, Livingstone, and many others, the British Empire gradually expanded. Some parts of it were taken by conquest, such as Canada and parts of India from the French, and South Africa and Ceylon from the Dutch. A most important part, the New England colonies, was lost in

the American War of Independence. But the British went on colonizing. The newly-conquered lands, such as Canada and South Africa, and the newly-discovered ones, such as Australia and New Zealand, soon had a growing population of British colonists. They were people who went out to those empty countries prepared for a hard life and willing to make the new colonies their permanent home.

But other places now began to be added to the British Empire, for reasons quite different from those of exploration and colonization. Other nations, too, began to desire possessions overseas. This growth of 'nations' into 'empires' is a thing which we must now study. It is called the growth of *imperialism*.

Let us first try to understand *why* nations want to become empires. Why cannot the men who form a nation be satisfied with their own country? Why should they want to conquer other people's countries?

There are several 'factors' in imperialism, as in nationalism. The first factor is the plasure that strong rulers have in extending their power. We may call this factor the *personal ambition of leaders*.

But leaders cannot do anything unless they can get people to follow them and to do what they say. Why are people willing to follow and even to go to war for the sake of having an empire? The reason is the second factor of imperialism. It is *economic necessity*. What does this mean?

'Economic' means 'concerning the making and distribution of wealth, money or goods'. So 'economic necessity' means the need of making money or making goods. Why does this need lead to imperialism? We shall now see.

If the people of a country grow their own food and make just enough manufactured goods for their own use, they will

be able to get on without trading with other countries. This is what most people did in the ancient times. The people of India did not know anything about bicycles and railway-trains and radio-sets, so they did not desire to have them. The people of Europe did not know about tea and rubber and silk ; so they did not want those things. But when more people began to travel from one country to another, they heard about the good things of other countries and they began to want to have them. When merchants brought those goods from other countries, they got high prices for them. So trade began, and increased year by year.

Now, as you have learned in Lesson 21, a very great change took place in Europe about 100 years ago. Machines were invented which could make things very quickly and cheaply. Cloth could be made in Lancashire, England, from cotton brought from the U.S.A. ; and, because it was made so quickly and cheaply by machines, it could be sold in India at a lower price than Indian cloth which was made by hand in India. The British merchants began to sell their cloth all over the world. Other western nations then also began to get machines (they bought them from England at first, and later began to make them). After 1868 the Japanese also did the same. When a country has a great many factories in which it makes all sorts of manufactured goods by machinery, we call it an ' industrialized ' country. By 1890 all the big western nations, and Japan, had become industrialized, and they began to compete against each other to sell their manufactured goods. The place where goods are sold is called a ' market '. So a *struggle for markets* began.

[Key-Question 84 : *What nations competed for trade in Africa and the East ?*]

§84. It was not only a struggle for markets : it was also a

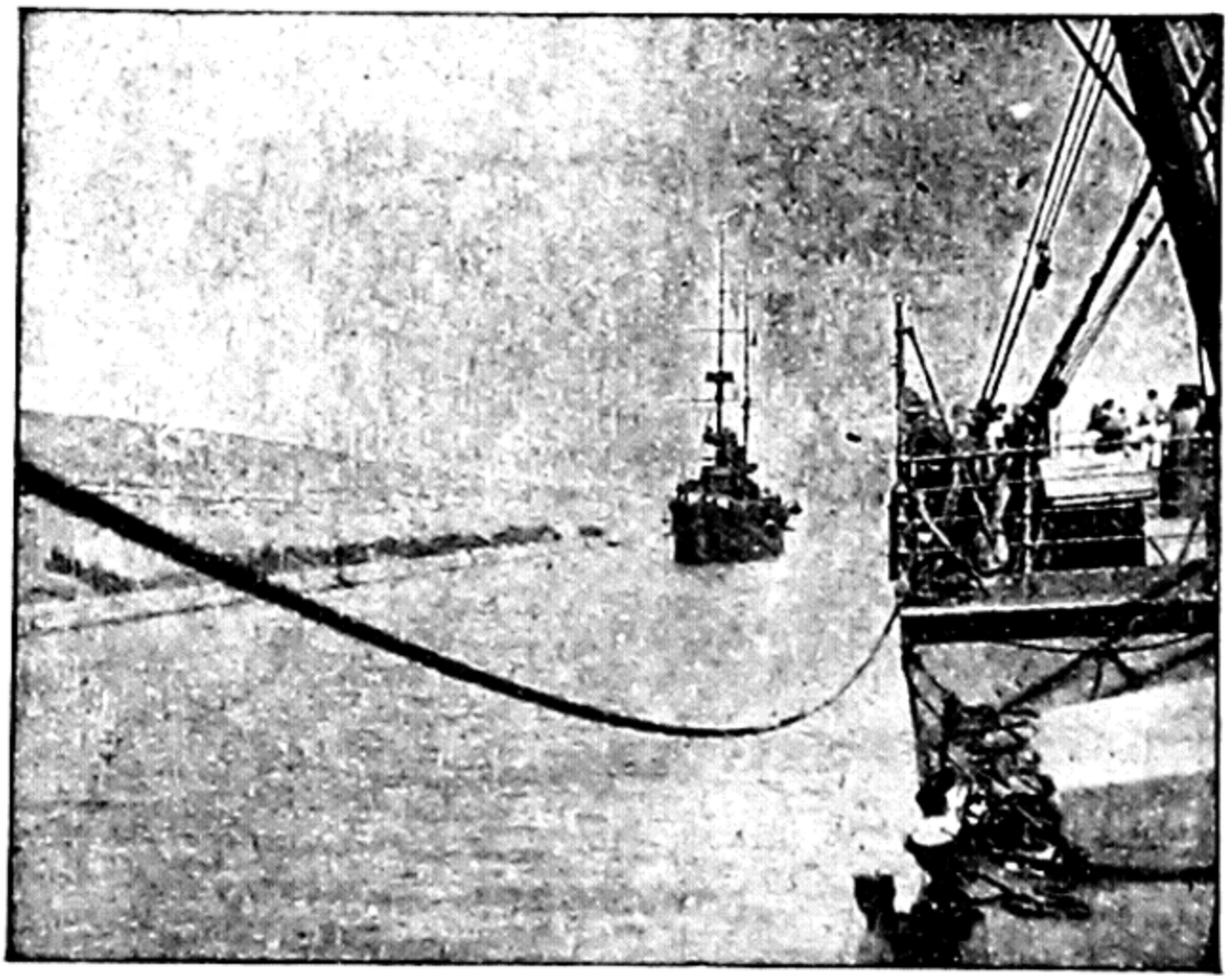
struggle for raw materials. If you want to make cloth, you must have cotton, or silk, or wool, from which to make



AFRICA AS DIVIDED AMONG THE EUROPEAN NATIONS BETWEEN 1880 & 1913 (1) MOROCCO: Arab kingdom mainly under French and Spansih protection and control. (2) TRIPOLI: under Turkish rule until 1911, then conquered by Italy and renamed Libya. (3) EGYPT: under Turkish rule until 1882, then British protectorate. Independent kingdom since 1922. (4) ABYSSINIA: independent kingdom, conquered by Italy in 1936. restored to independence in 1941. (5) LIBERIA: independent Negro republic, first established for freed Negro slaves in 1847. (6) BOER REPUBLICS. conquered in 1900-2 by the British and now forming part of the Union of South Africa, a Dominion of the British Commonwealth.

it. If you do not produce enough cotton or silk or wool in your own country, you must buy it from another. So the industrialized nations also began to compete for raw materials.

Look at the map of Africa. There are only three small countries in that great continent which are marked as 'independent', that is, not under the rule of some other nation. All the remaining part of Africa was taken by one or other of the European nations between 1880 and 1913. CECIL RHODES (after whom Rhodesia is named) was the Englishman



THE SUEZ CANAL

to whom the extension of the British Empire in South Africa is greatly due.

Imperialism spread in another way, too. When you want to carry on trade with countries far way, you must be certain that your goods will arrive safely and as quickly as possible. If you are sending your goods by ship, you must have harbours

in which the ships can safely stop during a long voyage, and where they can take on board coal and water and food, or have repairs done if necessary. As you have learned in Lesson 21, the British did most of their trading in ships, so the need for harbours was very great in their case. This is why so many islands and other places, scattered all over the world, were colonized by British traders, or conquered by the British navy. If you look at a map of the British Empire you will see that this is so. The *Suez Canal* which made the journey from England to India shorter, was made by a French engineer named DE LESSEPS and opened in 1869; but it is managed by a company of which half the shares were bought for the British Government by the great British Prime Minister BENJAMIN DISRAELI, Earl of Beaconsfield.

EXERCISES

1. What is 'Imperialism'? Why do nations become 'imperialist'?
2. What are some of the results of imperialism?
3. Is imperialism good? If not, how can it be got rid of, and prevented?

LESSON 43: THE DEMAND FOR FREEDOM

[Key-Question 85: *What has caused subject peoples to rebel?*]

§85. Nations are made up of men: and most men think first of themselves and their families, and how they can live in safety and comfort and grow rich. There have been good rulers, such as Ashoka, Harsha-Vardhana, Akbar, and Shivaji in India; King Alfred, Queen Elizabeth and Queen Victoria among the English; the saintly King Louis IX and Henry IV of France, Presidents George Washington and Franklin Roosevelt of the U.S.A., who have worked for the good of their people without thought for themselves. But the great majority of rulers have loved power for the sake of enjoying its pleasures. They have cared little for the sufferings of those

who had to work for them, or whom they conquered in order to get what they wanted.

It is the same even with national Parliaments, for Parliaments are made up of members who are men and women. It was the folly of the leaders of the English Parliament of 1763-82 that led to the American War of Independence in spite of the protests of great Englishmen such as Pitt (the Younger), Fox and Burke. The danger is greater still when power is in the hands of private individuals or trading companies, for their actions are less well known and less likely to be publicly criticized than those of Parliaments. Such was the case with the Slave Trade which went on until the British Government stopped it throughout the British empire in 1807. Similar was the case with the East India Company, which did so much harm to India from 1600 to 1858. Similar too was the case of the Dutch East India Company under which the South African natives were recruited as slaves until 1795 when Cape Colony was conquered by the British. That same Dutch East India Company was responsible for the fearful tyranny in Java from 1830 onwards, during which about 250 crores of rupees are estimated to have been taken by force from Java's population of only 50 lakhs (at that time).



DUTCH EAST INDIA TRADING SHIP

When such cruelty and selfishness are practised by private traders and companies, or even by governments, it is not sur-

prising that the oppressed people presently rebel. The desire for freedom from fear of tyranny and violence is natural to all human beings, and in the end even the most downtrodden and enslaved people begin to struggle to be free.

[Key-Question 86 : *Which peoples gained their freedom between 1474 and 1861, and which are still not free?*]

§86. One of the earliest of the European peoples to rebel against an oppressive government (the government of Austria) was the Swiss under their national hero WILLIAM TELL. We have learned in Lesson 9 how in 1474 they declared their independence. But Swiss independence was not formally recognized by other European nations until 1648, when the Peace of Westphalia ended the Thirty Years' War between Roman Catholics and Protestants. After this, for a long time, there were divisions among the Swiss themselves, some being in favour of a democratic government, some in favour of government by the aristocracy (nobles) and others in favour of government by the guilds (trade unions). In 1798 a French Republican army occupied Switzerland, and the Swiss Republic was declared. Fifty years later, Switzerland became a Federation.

We learned in Lesson 9 how in 1480 the Duke of Moscow declared himself Tsar of Russia, which had been under Mongol rule, also how in 1492 the people of Spain under King Ferdinand expelled the last of the Moors.

The three northern peoples of Europe, Danes, Norwegians and Swedes were under Danish rule until 1523 when Sweden became independent under its King Gustavus I. Norway separated from Denmark in 1814 and from Sweden in 1905.

The people of Holland (the Dutch) gained their independence from Spanish rule in 1581 when they declared

themselves independent after a long struggle under the leadership of their great hero, William of Orange (William the Silent).

Nearly 200 years passed before the next great struggle for freedom : that of the New England colonists of America, who declared their independence from British rule in 1776 (see Lesson 16).

Many independent European nations lost their freedom in the time of Napoleon, who brought under his rule all the countries of western Europe except Great Britain. All these were freed by Napoleon's defeat in 1815. Between 1810 and 1822 nearly all the Spanish and Portuguese colonies in South America gained their independence, and declared themselves republics (see Lesson 30). Mexico became independent of Spain in 1821, and set up its own emperor. It too became a republic in 1867. The Greek people rebelled against Turkish rule and gained their independence in 1829. We have already learned in Lesson 31 how Italy became an independent kingdom in 1861. We can say, therefore, that in the 400 years from the time when the Swiss became an independent nation in 1474 until the independence of Italy in 1861, almost all the peoples of the western hemisphere won their freedom from foreign rule. There remained only the great nations of the Middle and Far East : the peoples of Egypt, Iraq, India, Burma, Indonesia, Indo-China and China. Their turn did not come until the twentieth century, so in our next book we shall learn what happened to them.

EXERCISES

1. Make a list of the nations of the modern world and when they won their freedom.
2. Read more about the Swiss and tell the story of their struggle for independence.
3. Read about the struggle of the Dutch under William the Silent and how they gained their freedom.

LESSON 44 : FREEDOM WITHOUT DISUNION

[Key-Question 87: *What system of government has proved successful in the British Dominions? Why?*]

§87. In the meantime a new experiment in government was being tried. It came about like this. We have learned in Lesson 17 how the freed colonists of the U.S.A. formed themselves into a Federation in 1787. In the same lesson we studied what happened in Canada, and we saw that Canada first tried the experiment of dividing itself into two completely separate countries, French Canada or Quebec, and British Canada or Ontario. Then the experiment was tried of joining the two parts under a single government at Montreal. This also failed. Finally it was decided in 1867 to set up a Federation. Under this system, each federating province or country has its own provincial government (and its own language, if it wishes) which deals with all matters concerning that province or country alone. But there is also a central or 'Federal' government which is given power to deal with all matters that concern more than one province, and with all matters which concern the whole country or nation. This system was found to be successful in Canada, and it has continued there ever since. A similar system has recently been decided upon for the Republic of India.

But there is also another important point to be noted here. Canada did not separate herself from the British Empire, as she might very easily have done by helping the American colonists in their war of independence against the British. One of the reasons for this we have already studied in Lesson 17. Another reason was that the British themselves had learned a good lesson from their experience with the American colonists. From that they knew that if you try to keep

unwilling people under your control by force, it is only a matter of time before they demand to be free and, if necessary, fight for their freedom. The British did not want to repeat the history of the American colonists in other countries of the world where they had set up colonies. They were therefore very careful, after 1775, to act in such a way as to give their colonists full freedom, and to make them willing to remain within the British Empire.

[Key-Question 88 : *To what extent are the Dominions of the British Commonwealth independent?*]

§88. In order to satisfy the colonists, a new system of joining the colonies to the mother-country was invented. Colonies which were considered capable of governing themselves completely were made into self-governing 'Dominions'. These Dominions had exactly the same power to make laws and carry on their own governments as England itself had. It was decided in 1859 that colonies such as Canada could impose taxes in their own countries, just as they pleased, and could even charge import-duties on goods coming from the mother-country or from any other country of the empire. The 'Dominion' of Canada, created in 1867, thus became a model for other self-governing parts of the British Empire, and the federal government which Canada adopted also became a model for other Dominions.

The other Dominions of the British Empire did not come into existence until 1900 and later, so we shall not write about them here. But it should be mentioned that little by little in many ways it gradually became the practice to consult the Dominions on all matters concerning the Britsh Empire as a whole. In 1887 it was decided, at a conference of representatives of the colonies and the mother-country, that if the colonies

wished to rely on the mother-country for protection, they must also pay something towards the cost. Australia, New Zealand, Cape Colony, and Newfoundland decided to do this. Canada preferred to have its own army and navy. In the twentieth century the Dominions became even more independent. They were consulted about the foreign policy of the Empire: they became members of the League of Nations in their own right. If Great Britain went to war, they could decide freely whether they would join or not.

In 1931 a law was passed by the British Parliament, called the *Statute of Westminster*. By this law the Dominions obtained the final freedom to decide whether to accept, change or reject any law passed by the British Parliament affecting a Dominion. In short, a Dominion was free to withdraw from the British Commonwealth of Nations (as it came to be called) at any time it chose. Under this law, Eire (the Irish Free State, which became a Dominion in 1922) changed its government into that of a republic, and when all other parts of the British Commonwealth and Empire declared war on Germany in 1939, Eire alone refused to do so, and remained neutral throughout the war, keeping a German Ambassador in Dublin, only a few hours distant from London.

In this way the problem of binding overseas colonies in loyalty to the mother-country was solved, and the British Empire has gradually become a Commonwealth of Nations, including many people not of British origin, such as the French of Canada, the Dutch of South Africa, the Maoris of New Zealand, and the peoples of India, Pakistan and Ceylon. It is a free union of people of many different races, differing in customs, language and religion.

EXERCISES

1. What is meant by 'Dominion Status'? What are its advantages and disadvantages?
2. Can people be united and yet remain free? If so, how?
3. Read more about the history of the Irish people and how they gained their freedom.

14

The Fifth Freedom of Man

LESSON 45 : FREEDOM FROM SELFISHNESS

[Key-Question 89 : *Which kinds of freedom had mankind gained up to the year* A.D. *1900, and how can we keep them?*]

§89. 'Perpetual vigilance is the price of freedom.' This famous saying means that if you want to keep the freedom you have gained, you must always be watchful against attempts to take it away. Those who hold great power are always apt to try to get more, by taking away the rights of others (Freedom No. 1—from fear of tyranny and violence), or by stopping them from making any protest or resistance to tyranny (Freedom No. 3—of speech and association). Intolerant people always try to take away Freedom No. 2 (freedom of thought and religion) from those who hold different opinions and beliefs. Although this is true, and although, even in our own time, people in some countries have lost for a time some of the freedom they had gained, it cannot be denied that *Man has largely won the first three freedoms* during the period of history we have been studying in this book—the period of 700 years from A.D. 1200 to A.D. 1900. That is a great accomplishment, when one bears in mind that Man's civilization began about 10,000 years ago. Let us think of it like this. A man usually lives for about 75 years: 700 years out of 10,000 is equal to about 15 years

out of 75. So the progress which Man has made in gaining the first three freedoms is equal to the progress that a boy might make in the first 15 years of his life. The boy in the present case has passed three public examinations before he reached the age of 15 years! Surely that is not a poor achievement.

But, just as the boy who passes examinations may forget all he has learned if he does not continue to study, so it is in the case of Man. He will not be able to climb the steps of higher education *to gain the fourth freedom* (mentioned in Lesson 1—freedom from want) unless he takes care of the three freedoms already gained. To do that, we must go on trying *to set all mankind free from the fear of war.* Rivalries between the nations of the modern world is the chief cause of that fear. How can we remove those rivalries? We shall study that in the sequel to this book[1]. To keep the second freedom—freedom of thought and religion—we must ourselves be tolerant, if we want others to be tolerant towards us. This is not as easy as it sounds, for everyone likes to have this freedom for himself, but is not so ready to give it to others when they express different opinions or beliefs. This is particularly the case when the differences of opinion arise on such important matters as religion or politics. But if we refuse to let other people hold their own opinions on these matters, and specially if we try to force them to accept our own, progress is impossible. If everyone went on always thinking the same things as his ancestors thought, progress would come to an end because, as the Buddha said, 'What a man thinks, that he becomes'. This is true: if we think exactly what our fathers and grandfathers thought, we shall remain in the condition in which they were or are. Our thought depends a good deal

[1] *The Struggle of Democracy.*

upon what we read and what we talk about. Therefore, if we want to think *new* thoughts, and *better* thoughts, we must try to study *all* sides of every topic that comes before us, and not be content only with what we read in newspapers or with what others say. 'A *little* learning is a dangerous thing.'

[Key-Question 90: *Which kinds of freedom still remain for us to win, and how can we win them?*]

§90. The fourth freedom—freedom from want, i.e. from lack of food, clothing, shelter and the means of earning them—is the freedom which remains specially for the men and women of the twentieth century to win. That freedom was not won when the nineteenth century ended in A.D. 1900. Only a few rich people were really free from the fear of poverty. We have still to find out how to change our ways of doing things, so that *every* man, woman and child in the world may have enough to eat, enough to wear, and a proper place to live in, with health, leisure, culture and happiness. In our half of the twentieth century a beginning has been made in that direction. Many countries are planning, and some are carrying out their plans. We shall see in the sequel to this book how far they have gone, and how much remains for them to do.

But there is a *fifth freedom*, till now not mentioned here. Without that freedom, Man cannot hope to succeed in winning the fourth freedom and keeping it for always. The fifth freedom is *freedom from selfishness.*

'That is impossible', some of you will say. 'All men are selfish.' It is quite true that all men are selfish, except perhaps a few of the greatest that ever lived. But men are not as selfish as they used to be. Is that really a fact? Do not men still do cruel and horrible things to each other? Do they

no let others die of hunger, so as to get rich themselves? Yes: but when such things happened in the past, very few people thought that it mattered. Most people took no notice at all unless they were themselves affected. They accepted suffering for others (and sometimes for themselves also) as their fate, or the will of God.

In this respect things are very different now. In Lessons 26, 27 and 28 we have read about the work of noble men and women who spent all their lives in trying to win freedom from disease, cruelty and pain for Man. In Lessons 32, 37, 38, 39, and 40 we have read how other great men had new ideas of how men might live without causing harm to others, and of great inventors who gave mankind new powers from which all the world might benefit. So, although most people are still selfish, it is a great step forward that many more people are aware today of the sufferings of others, and that they are anxious to help in relieving them. This has been brought about largely through the spread of information and knowledge through education, and through modern inventions such



A THOUGHT OF COMPASSION

as printing, newspapers, the telegraph, the telephone and radio. Now, when the people of one country are starving, good people in other countries send food and medicines and volunteers to help those in need. Thus slowly, we are little by little gaining even the Fifth Freedom—Freedom from Selfishness. It is not a freedom which can be won by fighting with weapons of metal. It is a freedom that is won by the constant fight of our conscience against our own selfish desires. Each time we see a person in need, and pass that person by without an act, a word, or even a thought of compassion, it is a victory for *sefishness.* Each time we give whatever help we can (even if it be very little indeed,) it is a victory for unselfishness. By such victories, repeated every day in the everyday things of our daily lives, at home, at school, at play, we shall come nearer and nearer to winning the Fifth Freedom. Then, and then only, the world will become a happy place.

EXERCISES

1. Write an essay on 'Perpetual vigilance is the price of freedom', illustrating it with examples.
2. In what ways has mankind progressed towards civilization between A. D. 1200 and A. D. 1900?
3. How can we win the Fifth Freedom?

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